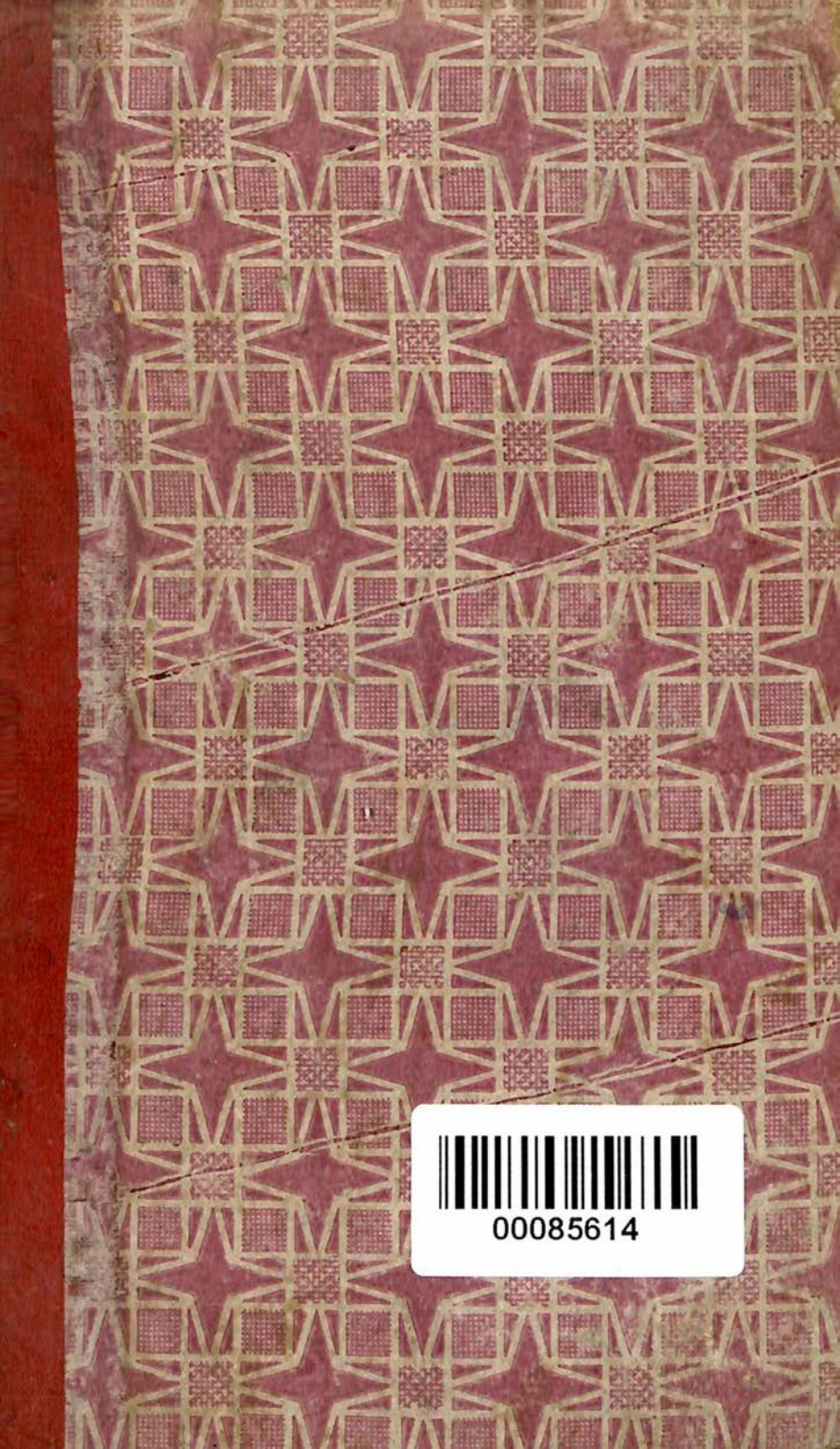
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A STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF BENGAL.

Published under the direction of Colonel H.L. Thuillier C.S.I. F.R.S. Surveyor General of India.

Surveyor General's Office Calcutta.

April 1872.

A Statistical Account of Bengal.

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VOLUME V.

DISTRICTS OF DACCA, BÁKARGANJ, FARÍDPUR, AND MAIMANSINH.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1875.

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PREFACE TO VOLUME V.

OF THE

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF BENGAL.

THIS Volume comprises the Dacca Division as reconstituted in 1874, after the separation of the Province of Assam from the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. Up to that year, the Valley of the Bárak with its two Districts of Cachar and Sylhet had formed the north-eastern part of the Dacca Division. In 1874, Cachar and Sylhet were annexed, for administrative purposes, to the newly-created Chief Commissionership of Assam; the Dacca Division retaining the four Districts of Maimansinh, Dacca, Farídpur, and Bákarganj.

The Central District, Dacca, forms the focus of the three river systems of Bengal. The waters of the Brahmaputra from the due north unite on its border with the waters of the Ganges from the north-west; and the united channel, after receiving the Meghná and waters of the Cachar valley from the north-east, sweeps south in a vast body to the sea. The northernmost of the four Districts, Maimansinh, is watered by the Brahmaputra, which formerly intersected it, but whose new main channel, under the

name of the Jamuná, now skirts its western border. The western District of the Dacca Division, viz., Faridpur, forms the extreme eastern corner of the Gangetic delta. The southern District of the Division, Bákarganj, is watered by the great estuary formed by the three united river systems on the east; and on the west by the Gangetic distributaries. Towards the coast, it spreads out into marshes and jungle-covered flats, cut up by a hundred channels, and scarcely raised above the high-tide level of the sea.

This volume treats of an area of 15,683 square miles, containing a population of 7,592,932 souls. The District statistics were collected in the years 1870-73, and as regards accuracy are subject to the remarks in my preface to volume i. I had intended to devote two volumes to the Dacca Division; and the first of them, comprising the three southern Districts (Dacca, Faridpur, and Bákarganj), were printed before the northern half of the Division was split up on the erection of Assam into a Chief Commissionership. Instead, therefore, of having a compact separate volume for the three northern Districts of the former Dacca Division (Maimansinh, Cachar, and Sylhet), the only course left to me was to tack on the single District (Maimansinh) which remained of the northern half to the end of this book.

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ERRATA ET CORRIGENDA.

Pages 106 and 251. The chapter on Tenures, referred to as at the end of the volume, will be found at pp. 365 to 379, at the end of the Statistical Account of Faridpur District. That Account concluded the volume as it was originally printed, before the erection of Assam into a Chief Commissionership. This change, as already explained, forced me to tack on the District of Maimansinh to the present volume. [See *ante*, Preface.]

Page 200, Head-line. *For* BAKÁRGANJ, read BÁKARGANJ.

Page 208, Last line. *For angal burí*, read *jangal burí*.

Page 311, Lines 11, 16, 17. *For ganjá*, read *gánjá*.

I shall be grateful for any corrections or suggestions which occur to the reader. They may be addressed to me, care of the Secretary to the Government of Bengal, Calcutta.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

THE local weights and measures are given in detail at pp. 95, 207, 208, 322–324, 445–448. In some instances, in the following volume, these weights and measures have been converted into their English equivalents, and the native names have not been added. In such cases the reconversion from the English equivalents may be effected with sufficient accuracy in accordance with the following tables :—

MONEY.

1 pie ($\frac{1}{12}$ of an ánáá) = $\frac{1}{2}$ farthing.
1 pice ($\frac{1}{4}$ of an ánáá) = $1\frac{1}{2}$ farthings.
1 ánáá ($\frac{1}{16}$ of a rupee) = $1\frac{1}{2}$ pence.
1 rupee is worth, according to the rate of exchange, from 1s. 9d. to 2s., but for ordinary purposes it is taken at = 2s.

WEIGHTS.

The unit of weight is the *ser* (seer), which varies in different Districts from about $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. to 2·205 lbs. This latter is the standard ser, as fixed by Government, and corresponds to the metrical kilogramme. For local calculations in Lower Bengal, the recognised ser may be taken at 2 lbs. The conversion of Indian into English weights would then be as follows :—

1 chaták ($\frac{1}{16}$ of a ser) = 2 oz.
1 ser ($\frac{1}{40}$ of a maund) = 2 lbs.
1 man or maund (say) = 82 lbs.

LAND MEASURE.

The unit of land measure is the *bighá*, which varies from $\frac{1}{3}$ of an acre to almost 1 acre. The Government standard bighá is 14,400 square feet, or say $\frac{1}{3}$ of an acre ; and this bighá has been uniformly adopted throughout the following volume.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF

THE DISTRICT OF DACCA.

THE DISTRICT OF DACCA (*Dháká*), the principal District of the Division of the same name, lies between 24° 20′ 12″ and 23° 6′ 30″ north latitude, and 89° 47′ 50″ and 91° 1′ 10″ east longitude. It contains an area of 2902 square miles, as revised by the Surveyor-General in 1871, and a population of 1,852,993 souls, as ascertained by the Census of 1872. The principal Civil Station, which is also the chief town of the District, is Dacca, situated on the north bank of the Burígangá river, in latitude 23° 43′ 20″ and longitude 90° 26′ 10″. The town is also the Head Quarters of the Com-

[1] The District Statistical Account of Dacca has been chiefly compiled from the following sources:—(1) Five Series of Returns specially prepared for me by the Collector of the District, Mr D. R. Lyall, C.S.; (2) Report by Mr A. L. Clay, C.S., late Collector of the District, published in 1867; (3) Dr D. J. Taylor's Sketch of the Topography and Statistics of Dacca, 1840; (4) Special Report on different classes of Bráhmans and Vishnuvites, drawn up for me by Bábu Baikunth Náth Sen, Deputy-Inspector of Schools, Bikrampur; (5) Special Report on Kulinism, by Bábu Abhay Charan Dás, Assistant to the Commissioner of the Division; (6) Census Report of Bengal, 1872; (7) District Census Compilation, by Mr C. F. Magrath, C.S.; (8) Short Account of Fibres grown in Dacca, drawn up for me by Mr M. David; (9) Statement of prevailing rates of rent for land producing ordinary crops, called for by the Bengal Government in 1872; (10) Surveyor-General's return of area, with latitudes and longitudes, and other technical details; (11) Income-Tax Report for 1871-72; (12) Report of Inspector-General of Police for 1871; (13) Reports of Inspector-General of Jails for 1868 and 1869; (14) Reports of the Director of Public Instruction for 1870-71 and 1871-72; (15) Postal Statistics, furnished to me by the Director-General of Post-Offices; (16) Report of the Meteorological Department for 1871; (17) Report on the Charitable Dispensaries of the Lower Provinces for 1871; (18) Special Report, furnished to me by the Civil Surgeon in medical charge of the District.

missioner of the Division. Dr Taylor, in his "Topography and Statistics of Dacca," states that the word is supposed by some to be derived from Dhák, the name of a tree (*Butea frondosa*), while others refer its etymology to the goddess Dhákeswarí—literally "The Concealed Goddess"—a shrine in whose honour, erected by King Ballál Sen, still exists on the west of the town.

BOUNDARIES.—Dacca is bounded on the north by the District of Maimansinh (Mymensing); on the east by Tipperah District, the Meghná river forming a natural boundary between them for the whole distance; and on the south and west by the Districts of Bákarganj and Faríḍpur. The Ganges or Padmá river forms the boundary on the south-west, but in the south-east corner there are 458 villages, comprising an area of 320·25 square miles, which, until very recently, belonged to Dacca, though separated from the other portion of the District by the Ganges. This river, since it was mapped in 1769, has shifted its channel, and completely altered the whole appearance of the country. By a Government Notification, dated 17th June 1871, the separated tract was transferred to the neighbouring District of Bákarganj from the 1st August 1871.

JURISDICTION.—Dacca Collectorate formerly comprised the Districts of Bákarganj and Faríḍpur, which were disjoined from it in 1817 and 1811 respectively, and formed into distinct Districts. The present subdivision of Mánikganj, and a portion of Nawábganj, were annexed to Dacca from Faríḍpur about 1856. The 458 villages mentioned above, which were cut off from the rest of the District by the changes in the course of the Ganges river, were transferred to Bákarganj from August 1871. The revenue and magisterial jurisdictions are the same. The Civil Judge also exercises jurisdiction over the neighbouring District of Faríḍpur, the Civil Jurisdiction not having been separated from Dacca in 1811, when the former District was erected into an independent Collectorate.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY.—The District consists of a level plain, divided into two parts by the Dhaleswarí river, and varying considerably in their physical aspects. The northern part is again subdivided by the Lakhmiá river (pronounced Lăkhyá), which intersects it from north to south. The western of these two northern subdivisions contains the city, and is the larger of the two. The greater part of it lies comparatively high and above flood level, the soil consisting of red *kankar* with strata of clay in the more elevated parts, covered by a thin layer of vegetable mould,

and near the banks of the rivers and streams by alluvial earth. At some points the scenery on the river Lakhmiá is very beautiful, the banks being high and well wooded. About twenty miles north of the city small hilly ridges are met with in the Madhupur jungle adjoining the District of Maimansinh. They are mere mounds (*tilás*), never more than thirty or forty feet high, and seldom exceeding twenty feet. These ridges are composed of red soil, containing a considerable quantity of iron ore. This tract of country is remarkable for the small size of the streams by which it is watered, and hence the greater part is an unproductive waste, covered with jungle and infested with wild beasts. Of late years, however, cultivation has been extended. Towards the city the red soil is intersected by creeks and morasses, the borders of which are well suited for the cultivation of rice, mustard, and *til* seed (*Sesamum orientale*); while to the eastward of the town, a broad alluvial, well-cultivated plain extends as far as the junction of the Dhaleswarí and Lakhmiá rivers. The north-eastern subdivision is situated between the Meghná and Lakhmiá rivers. It is inundated to a larger extent, has a much greater area of alluvial soil, and is in a higher state of cultivation than the tract to the westward. The red *kankar* soil is found chiefly in its northern part, and forms small hilly ridges, which run up into the eastern angle of the District formed by the junction of the Meghná and Brahmaputra rivers. Fruit-trees, tanks, &c., now buried in uncultivated jungly tracts, show that at one time these were the sites of populous villages.

The division of the District to the south of the Dhaleswarí is by far the most fertile tract. It consists entirely of rich alluvial soil, annually inundated to a depth varying from two to fourteen feet. By the middle of July the whole of this tract is under water, and presents the appearance of an extensive lake covered with growing rice, through which boats sail from one part of the country to another. The villages are built on mounds of earth artificially raised above the level of inundation. This division of the District is devoid of picturesque scenery.

Elevated Tracts.—There are neither mountains nor hills in Dacca District, the only break in the uniform level of the country being the low ridges in the Madhupur jungles, some of which are covered with grasses and underwood, and others with forest. All these miniature hills are accessible to wheeled carriages as regards their slope, and the Maimansinh road runs over them. Some of

them have been utilised for purposes of cultivation near the Fiscal Divisions of Jaidebpur and Báigunbárí, by two of the largest landed proprietors of the District, Bábu Kálí Náráyan Rái and Khwájá Abdul Ganí, C.S.I., but the plantations are both small.

River System.—The District is intersected by a complete network of rivers and streams. The following ten are reported as navigable throughout the year for native boats of four tons burden or upwards:—(1) Meghná, (2) Ganges or Padmá, (3) Jamuná, (4) Ariál Khán, (5) Kirtinásá, (6) Dhaleswarí, (7) Burígangá, (8) Lakhmiá (pronounced Lăkhyá), (9) Mendikhálí, and (10) Gházikhálí. The rivers navigable to boats of two tons burden are (11) the Hilsámárí, (12) Bansí, (13) Turág, (14) Tungí, (15) Bálu, and (16) the old bed of the Brahmaputra. The whole country is navigable by small boats during the rainy season.

The Meghná, which forms the eastern boundary of the District, is continually changing its course, although not to any great extent. Its banks are shelving and cultivated, and the bed generally sandy. The Meghná forms no important islands within the District, but has many alluvial formations (*chars*) in its course. It nowhere expands into lakes. It is subject to the influence of the tides during eight months of the year, but in the rainy season the tide loses its power. The *bore*, which is very considerable at the mouth of the river, does not reach as high up as this District. The river is nowhere fordable at any period of the year. Its principal tributary is the Dhaleswarí, a large river which enters the District in the north-west near the junction of the Jamuná and Ganges rivers, and flows generally in a south-westerly direction till it empties itself into the Meghná at Munshíganj. The other important tributary of the Meghná on its west bank is the old Brahmaputra, which flows along the north-eastern boundary of the District, and runs into the Meghná at Bhairab-bázár. The portion of the river which lies within Dacca District is a comparatively insignificant stream, navigable by large boats only during the rainy season. A branch of this river, called the Brahmaputra creek, flows in a south-westerly direction through the District till it falls into the Dhaleswarí at a place called Kalágáchhá, near the junction of that river with the Meghná. It is a small and unimportant stream, and only noted for a fair held on its banks at Nángalband. In the hot season before the rains, the river exhibits only a dried-up bed with a muddy and sandy bottom. It is fordable nearly throughout its whole course

during six months of the year. A navigable arm of the Meghná, known as the Mendi-khálí, communicates with the Brahmaputra at Kákiár Tek.

THE GANGES or PADMÁ RIVER forms the western and south-western boundary of the District, and separates it from Faridpur and Bákarganj. Instead of following its course as laid down by Rennel in 1780, which joined the Meghná at Mendiganj, it now discharges the great body of its water through two channels considerably to the north of that place. The first of these is the Kirtinásá, which runs a little to the north of Rájnagar, and is now considered the principal branch of the Ganges. It is from three to four miles in width, and has a very strong current at its most contracted part, rendering navigation difficult during the rains. The Kirtinásá joins the Meghná to the north of Kártikpur. The second channel of the Ganges is the Nayá Bagní, further south, and within the Bákarganj District. The original channel of the Ganges is now almost dry in the hot months, the whole of its bed being filled up with alluvial accretions, divided by broad shallows; a few channels are navigable, but only by small boats. The course of the Ganges within the District is very variable, and is said to alter as much as four, five, or six miles in a single year, cutting away its north and south banks with equal impartiality. About the middle of its course it forms the island known as Char Mukundiá. The river has a sandy, muddy bottom, its banks in the dry season being generally shelving, and in the rains usually abrupt. The Ganges throws off two branches within the District, the Hilsámárí and the Ariál-khán. The first-named river is only navigable by boats of two tons burden, but if it were not for a bar across its entrance, it would be navigable the whole year by boats of any size. This river connects the Ganges with the Dhaleswarí.

THE LAKHMIÁ RIVER leaves the Brahmaputra at a place called Tok, at the northern boundary of the District, and flows in a southerly direction till it empties itself into the Dhaleswarí, about four miles from the junction of that river with the Meghná. The Magistrate of the District states that the Lakhmiá is one of the most beautiful rivers in Eastern Bengal. Its banks are generally high and well wooded, and it never overflows them. It runs for about fifty miles through the red formation, and is remarkable for the purity and coolness of its water. The tide affects the river during five months of the year, but does not reach far up. It is not fordable at any time of the

year except at one point, Ekdálá. Owing to the silting up of the Brahmaputra near the point where it enters the District, the volume of water in the Lakhmiá is now on the decrease. It must, however, always remain a large tidal stream, supplied from the Dhaleswarí, even if its northern outlet were entirely closed.

THE BANAR RIVER enters the District from the north, westward of the Lakhmiá, and after flowing first in a southerly and afterwards in a westerly course, joins that river at Ekdálá. THE BÁLU is another tributary of the Lakhmiá, and joins it on the west bank at Demrá, a small stream, and which merely forms an outlet for marsh water. THE BANSÍ RIVER also flows into the District from the north, and drains the western side of the Madhupur jungles. It also empties itself into the Dhaleswarí, but it is a small stream, and the traffic on it is almost entirely confined to the rainy season. THE BURÍGANGÁ RIVER, on the northern bank of which the city of Dacca is situated, is a mere branch of the Dhaleswarí, about twenty-six miles in length, separating from it a short distance below Sábhár, and rejoining the main stream at Fatullá, on the Náráinganj road. The tide rises and falls to the extent of two feet at the town of Dacca. The tract between the Burígangá and Dhaleswarí forms a large island known as Paschimdí. The Dolái creek connects the Bálu river with the Burígangá, which it joins within the city limits. Attempts have been made to render it navigable throughout the year, but without permanent success. It is reported that the creek will always be liable to silt up in the middle, as each end of it is affected by the tide.

The banks of all the above rivers are cultivated, with the exception of a small tract along the Lakhmiá and Bansí rivers, and all are more or less subject to the tide. The Collector states that it is difficult, in a District like Dacca, to name the fords. The beds of the rivers are generally pretty level, and when a stream is fordable in one place, it is so almost throughout its whole length. Two shoals occur in the Burígangá, one opposite the town of Dacca, and one at the point where it takes its departure from the Dhaleswarí, both of which, though not actually fordable, are likely to become so in time. There is also a similar shoal in the Lakhmiá at Ekdálá, where the river is reported as fordable. The Bálu, Bansí, and Hilsámárí rivers are fordable in the dry weather only.

LAKES, MARSHES, ARTIFICIAL WATERCOURSES, &c.—Throughout the whole of the District, and especially in the portion of the country adjoining the large rivers, numerous marshes have been formed by the

changes in their course. These old beds are covered with rank vegetation, and do not deserve the name of lakes. The artificial watercourses are as follow:—(1) The Táltalá *khál*, said to have been dug by Rájá Rájballabh to facilitate communication between Rájnagar and Dacca. This watercourse extends from Bahar on the Padmá to Táltalá on the Dhaleswarí, but has now been allowed to silt up, so that it is only open during four months of the year for large boats. It effects a saving of about twenty or twenty-five miles on the outer route between Barisál and Dacca, besides avoiding the somewhat perilous navigation of the large rivers. The Collector is of opinion that this canal would pay well if it were re-dug, tolls being levied to meet the cost. (2) The Dolái *khál* is a short cutting of about four miles, and unites the waters of the Bálu and Burígangá rivers. It shortens the communication between Maimansinh by about twenty-two miles, but is only open for nine months in the year. Government has spent about £2500 on this work, and the yearly net profit is now said to amount to about £400. If it could be kept open all the year, the profits of course would be much larger. There are no rivers or non-navigable streams with any descents or rapids sufficient to render them available for the purpose of turning machinery. None of the rivers or streams contain rapids or other obstructions to navigation. Irrigation is not used, except to a very small extent, in the northern parts of the District, and the river water is nowhere artificially diverted for this purpose. The annual loss of life from drowning is stated to be about four hundred, chiefly children, who, during the rains, are allowed to run about close to dangerous holes, from which earth has been taken for the purpose of forming a mound (*bhiti*) upon which the houses are built.

River Traffic.—The principal commercial towns with a large population living by river traffic are Náráinganj and Madanganj at the confluence of the river Lakhmiá with the Dhaleswarí; Gálimpur and Kalákopá on the Hilsámárí; Sábhár and Mánikganj on the Dhaleswarí; and Dhámrái, on a creek of the Bansí. The first two towns form in fact one, as they lie on opposite sides of the river. Náráinganj is the second town in importance in the District, and may be termed the port of Dacca, from which it is distant about nine miles by land, and sixteen or eighteen by water. It constitutes the great mart east of Sirájganj on the Jamuná, and has regular steam communication with Calcutta, Silhet, Assam, and Káchár. It

carries on an extensive trade with Calcutta, importing cloth, piece goods, salt, &c., and exporting country produce of all kinds, particularly jute and seeds; with Chittagong, by importing cotton, timber, oil, hides, &c., and exporting tobacco, pottery, and country produce; and with Rangun and Akyab, by importing timber, cotton, catechu, &c., and exporting tobacco, betel-nut, &c. In former times salt was imported in large quantities from the Chittagong and Noákhálí Districts, and in 1839 the number of sloops engaged in the traffic amounted to about 160. Since the manufacture of salt has been abandoned by Government, this trade has ceased, but the amount of English salt at present imported from Calcutta is said to be about equal to that of the native article imported in the days of the Government monopoly. The towns of Gálimpur and Kalákopá transact chiefly with Calcutta, importing cloth and piece goods, and exporting country produce. Mánikganj, on the west bank of the Dhaleswarí, north-west of the town of Dacca, carries on a trade in mustard, oil, and tobacco, which are imported from Rangpur and Kuch Behar, and sent to Náráinganj and Calcutta. There is little commerce in other articles. Sábhár, at the junction of the Bansí with the Dhaleswarí, trades with Calcutta and Dacca in cloth and ironware. The traffic at Dhámrái consists entirely of country produce.

Fisheries.—There are no towns in the District whose inhabitants live entirely or in the most part by fishing, but there are many small fishing villages. The Collector finds it difficult to estimate the number of people who live by fishing, but is of opinion that the total number of hereditary fisher castes are not less than ten thousand in the District. The Census Report of 1872 gives a much greater number, and returns the number of fishing and boating castes as follows:—Jáliá, 32,269; Málá, 5567; Mánjhí, 870; Pátní, 4695; Pod, 101; Tior, 7988; others, 1539; total, 53,029. This is exclusive of a large population of Muhammadan fishermen and boatmen, besides Hindu castes who follow mixed occupations, such as Chandáls and Kaibarttas. The Collector states that many people belonging to hereditary fishing castes have abandoned their occupations as fishermen; but, on the other hand, nearly every one catches fish, whether belonging to the proper fishing castes or not. The following is a statement of the revenue obtained by Government from fifteen large river fisheries, which were resumed in 1859:—Margángí on the Kirtinásá, £2, 1·1s.; Sítal Lakh-

miá, £35; Brahmaputra, £10, 10s.; Dhaleswarí, £131, 8s.; Ichhámatí or Hilsámárí, £61, 4s.; Ghází-Khálí, £31, 5s. 9d.; Ganges or Padmá, £124, 6s.; Turág, £152; Kálígangá, £26, 2s.; Háridhoá, £5, 16s.; Narani-gangá, £38, 15s. 2d.; Burígangá, £38, 2s.; Khudádádpur, £36, 4s.; Rámgangá, £31, 15s. 9d.; and Tálúk Anandirám Dás, 19s.; total, £725, 18s. 8d. This, however, by no means gives even the approximate value of the fish caught in a District where for five months of the year fish swarm in every rice-field and are caught by all classes. The Collector states that the total value of the fisheries of Dacca is probably not less than ten times this amount, and may roughly be put down at from £8000 to £10,000. Large quantities of fish are dried and exported annually to different parts of the country. A species of bivalve shell in which pearls are found is searched for by a wandering gypsy-like tribe called the Bediyás, in the cold season; and in 1839 there were said to be from eighty to one hundred boats employed in this business. The pearls are small and of little value; the shells are sold in the bázárs, and are used by the natives in the place of spoons.

MARSH CULTIVATION.—No rivers or marshes have been embanked in the District with a view to the extension of cultivation, and the Collector seems to be of opinion that such embankments would not be feasible, as there is no tract of country now barren which could thus be rendered fertile. Four different crops of long-stemmed rice are cultivated in the District. The *áman* forms the most important of them, and the crop, which is the one most extensively cultivated in the District, comprises about fifty different sorts of rice. Of all the varieties of rice, the *áman* is the most rapid in its growth, frequently shooting up to the extent of twelve inches in as many hours as the inundation takes to rise, and in some seasons attaining a height of six or eight feet. The great danger to which it is exposed during the season of floods is a high and sudden rise of the water, by which the crop is over-topped and destroyed. Floating masses of weeds and vegetation detached from the marshes are also dangerous, being apt to bury the crop. In this District twelve feet may be taken as the greatest depth of water in which rice is cultivated. The Collector is of opinion, from personal observation, that short-stemmed rice is more grown than formerly; and this is only natural, as the level of the country is undoubtedly rising. Reeds or canes are not cultivated to any extent in the marshes, as the *char* lands, or river accretions, yield an ample supply. Besides

the fishing castes already mentioned, there is a very large class of Musalmáns who earn the chief portion of their livelihood by going on trips to Calcutta, Rangpur, Maimansinh, and Patná as boatmen with cargoes of country produce. The large cargo-boats of Dacca District are entirely manned by these men, and the Collector states that the number thus employed cannot be less than five thousand. These people generally go as sharers in the venture.

LINES OF DRAINAGE.—The drainage of Dacca generally runs from the north-west to south-east, the usual course of the rivers and streams. All the latter take their exit in the extreme south-east of the District, at the point of junction of the two great rivers, the Ganges and the Meghná, into which the other streams of the District flow. The only important successions of marshes (*bils*) in Dacca are those in the north-west bordering on Maimansinh, which have their outlet into the Dhaleswarí; and the great marshes of Nawábganj and Srínagar, which drain into the Ganges through a number of small watercourses (*kháls*).

MINERALS.—No minerals are at present worked in the District. Formerly, however, before iron was imported, the red ferruginous clay of the Madhupur jungle tract was burned and iron smelted from it, but this has long since been given up, and will probably never again be attempted. No caverns, hot springs, or interesting gorges or passes are anywhere found in the District.

UNCULTIVATED VEGETABLE CROPS, JUNGLE PRODUCTS, &c.—Very few vegetable products of marketable value, which grow without cultivation, are found in Dacca District. The varieties of herbs (*ság*) are as follow:—Chamlái, Kalmí, Note, Helenchá, Sáchí, Betho, Gimá, and Pui; and some water plants, particularly the one called Makhná which is sold extensively at the beginning of the rains. Beeswax is found in the Madhupur jungles, but not to any great amount, and there are no castes or classes who live by trading in jungle products. There are no forests of any great extent in the District, and most of the wooded land in the Madhupur jungle tract is so badly provided with means of communication as to be almost valueless. The principal descriptions of forest trees, jungle creepers, &c., are as follow:—Sálání, Pitání, Náosoná, Párail, Gainárí, Brihatí, Prasaráni, Briksha Jaistha, Kalpanáth, Puna-nabá, Khet-páprá, Akándí, Baráhakántá, Paltá, Báirkalí, Sonátalá, Káchhátalá, Dhámnátalá, Ráchná, Rángáchitá, Chai, Gorak Cháluá, Nugálitalá, Musháli-latá, Gaj Pipul, Bich-tárak, Mamá-láru, Ser-phuká, Kálá-

lat, Mátiá-lat, Sámálu, Kánái-larí, Rákhál-soshá, Apamárga, Beran, Siálmotrá, Haritakí, Amlakí, Bayrá, Dhaniá, Jain, Rándhuní, Ban-pákair, Látá, Dahar-karanjá, Kuchilá, and Kumirá-lat. Nor are there any wide uncultivated pasture grounds in Dacca District, although in the rainy season many people send their cattle to the high lands of the Madhupur jungle. A few herds go with these cattle for the purpose of tending them, but it cannot be said that there is any class of people who live by pasturing in the forest, as the herds merely go there for a few months, and for a specific purpose.

FERÆ NATURÆ.—The wild animals indigenous to the District are, with few exceptions, of the same species as those in the other parts of the Gangetic Delta. The following description is condensed from Mr Collector Clay's District Report in the "Principal Heads of History and Statistics of the Dacca Division" (1867), and Mr Taylor's "Topography and Statistics of Dacca" (1840):—Tigers and leopards infest the jungles of the northern tract, but their numbers have decreased of late years owing to the clearing of jungle and the spread of cultivation. In times of drought or in seasons of inundation these animals frequently repaired to the cultivated parts, and committed depredations on the cattle of the peasantry. Formerly they carried their depredations to such an extent that the Mughul Government assigned a rent-free tract of land (*jágír*) to a class of men called *bághmáriás* or tiger-slayers. The yearly cost of keeping down tigers, &c., has been *nil* for some time past. Tigers and leopards are now scarce, and are killed by European gentlemen of the station when heard of. The elephant is an aboriginal inhabitant of this part of the country, and it is stated that a herd of these animals had their quarters in the heavy jungles to the north, and up to 1867 eluded all attempts to capture them. Their numbers are said to have been increased from time to time by tame elephants which had escaped from confinement and joined the herd. Wild hogs occasionally cause considerable destruction to the crops, but they are now less numerous than formerly, and are hunted down by the natives in great numbers, especially during the rains. The wild buffalo is found in marshy land in all parts of the District. The black bear still lurks among the small hills in the northern tracts. Four kinds of deer abound, the *gaus* deer, the *sambar* or black *rusa* of Bengal, the hog deer, and the barking deer; all of which inhabit the northern jungles of the District.

SMALL GAME.—The porcupine chiefly takes up his abode in gardens and elevated spots of ground in the vicinity of villages. He

burrows under ground to a considerable distance, and is very destructive to the crops of sugar-cane, bamboo, gourds, and edible roots. The flesh of the porcupine is eaten by the lower orders of Hindus; it is white, and is said to be not ill-flavoured. The quills are used for combs and ornaments. The small brown squirrel is found in the northern jungles. The common green monkey is plentiful in the jungles, and especially near the city. The jackal, fox, and hare abound. The so-called black rabbit (pronounced by Naturalists to be a hare) is found in the jungles north of the town. Mr Clay, the Magistrate and Collector of Dacca, in the "Principal Heads of the Statistics of the Dacca Division," states that this animal appears to be the connecting link between the hare and the rabbit, and is only found elsewhere in the jungles of the Maimansinh District and along the *tarái* towards the Nepál country. It frequents the thick grass jungles, and does not come into cultivated lands; the natives say it breeds in burrows like the rabbit. Among the bat tribe, the largest species met with in Dacca is the flying fox, which commits great havoc in the orchards during the night. The little striped or orange bat is so called from the golden colour of its fur; it inhabits the interior jungles, where, from its brilliant colour and small size, it is sometimes mistaken for a butterfly. The common house bat and the long-eared bat lurk in huts, deserted mosques, wells, &c. Two kinds of otters are found in the rivers, one grey and the other dark-brown. The former variety are trained by the fishermen to drive fish into their nets. They are also speared, and their skins exported to Bhután and China.

FISH-MAMMALS.—The porpoise (*Platanista gangetica*), or *susu*, as it is called by the natives, abounds in the rivers. Another variety, which may be called the Sundarban porpoise, its native name being *saná* or *haná*, is found in the large rivers Meghná and Ganges at certain seasons of the year. This latter animal has not the elongated snout of the *susu*, is of a larger size and lighter colour, slower in its movements, and takes a shorter bound when it rises to the surface. It is found in herds—the *susu* always in pairs; both are nomadic in their habits. The *susu* is hunted during the cold season, the weapon used being a tridental harpoon with a long bamboo handle, the head separating from the shaft when it strikes the animal, but attached to it by a stout cord. The animal is allowed to exhaust itself, then dragged alongside and clubbed to death. The low-caste tribes eat the flesh, and boil out the oil, which sells at the rate of about threepence per pound in the Dacca

bázárs. From forty pounds to a hundredweight and a half of oil are extracted from a full-grown animal. The oil is used for burning, and when mixed with tiger's and alligator's fat, is considered by the people to be a sovereign remedy for rheumatism and other chronic pains.

BIRDS.—Vultures, crows, several varieties of eagles, fish eagles, kites, and falcons are common. Several species of owls are found, and are regarded by the natives with superstitious dread. Swallows and kingfishers are numerous. The blue and red kingfisher with a white breast forms the most handsome variety, and is caught during the cold season, and killed for the sake of its feathers, which are exported to China, where the feathers are in great request. In former days the Maghs and Burmese travelled all over India in search of these birds, which they caught with birdlime. Akyab was said to be the port of exportation, whence they were taken to China in junks. Professional bird-catchers are still met with in Dacca, and they informed Mr Clay, a late Magistrate of the District, that they were employed by people in Calcutta. The bee-eater, like the kingfisher, inhabits crevices in the banks of rivers, and may be met with throughout the whole District. Two varieties of the "tailor" bird are found, so called from the ingenious construction of their nest. Sun-birds, or honey-suckers, are also common, and are remarkable for the brilliant metallic lustre of their plumage. They flutter about the flowers, from which they extract the juice while on the wing. The weaver-bird, which derives its name from the hanging nests which it builds, and which are usually found attached in clusters to the date-tree, is very destructive to the rice crops. Of the several kinds of woodpeckers, the Indian robin may be mentioned; it is trained to fight by the natives. The *syámá* bird is much prized for its powers of song, a good one being worth from £1 to £2. Two varieties of the green parakeet are common. The wader birds are largely represented, and inhabit the numerous marshes throughout the District. The spoon-bill, *sáras*, and *mánikjor*, or beefsteak bird, make their appearance about the middle of October, and return to the hills at the commencement of the rains. Five species of herons are met with in the District. The pelican ibis is found in the neighbouring District of Faridpur, and doubtless also in Dacca. It frequents rivers, tanks, and marshes, generally in parties, but occasionally alone. The shell ibis is common, and is called by the natives *sámuk*, from the name of a large kind of snail on which it feeds. The adjutant-bird is not uncommon, though

seldom seen in the vicinity of the town. The *bulbul*, or Indian nightingale, is found in abundance, and is taught to fight by the natives who are very fond of the sport. The crested coot, the spur-winged plover, snipe, jack-snipe, and plover are common. Among the gallinaceous birds are the florican, which is rare, except in the Sábhár Fiscal Division, and the *chakor*, or *kaá* partridge, which is met with in many parts of the District, though not in great numbers; jungle-fowl and peacocks are tolerably plentiful, as also several kinds of quail. The common blue or jungle pigeon, two or three varieties of the green pigeon, and doves, are common. The *ráj-ghughu*, or imperial dove, is sometimes found, but rarely. It is a very handsome bird, the back and wings being dark emerald-green, and the neck, breast, and lower parts red-brown. Wild geese and ducks are plentiful on the river *chars* to the south, with many varieties of teal. Several species of gulls are found on all the large rivers, of which the scissor-bill, or Indian skimmer, is the most remarkable. This bird especially frequents the Meghná and Ganges rivers, and may be seen skimming over the water with its beak close to the surface in search of food. The small cormorant, called *páni-kauri* by the natives, is common in all the marshes and swamps, and the diver-bird is frequently seen perched on trees overhanging the water on the watch for its prey. These birds swim and dive with great rapidity, and float so low in the water that nothing but their long necks remain visible.

Fishes.—The rivers and tanks abound with fish. The ray and common shark are found in the Meghná and Ganges, frequently at a considerable distance from the sea. The saw-fish is also common in the large rivers during the spring months. The shark and ray are more dreaded by fishermen than even the crocodile. The *anwari*, or mullet, is found in shoals along the shallow margins of rivers and *chars*, and is caught and brought to market in the cold season. The *tapsi máchh*, or mango-fish, is plentiful in April and May. The *hilsá* in this District is said to be superior in size and flavour to that of any other part of the country. The *chital*, *rui*, *mirgal*, and *kátlá* are all common. Two kinds of fish, the *kai* and the *khalisá*, are in the habit of migrating in shoals from one pond to another. Their progress is effected by fixing the sharp notched edges of the *operculum* in the ground, and propelling the body by a sudden jerk or contraction of the caudal muscles. A number of them are devoured by birds while thus migrating. Crabs, cray-fish, and prawns are plentiful in the District.

REPTILES, INSECTS, &c.—Alligators are found in most of the large rivers, and deaths by these animals are not unfrequent. The *ghariál*, or fish-eating crocodile, often attains a large size. Several species of turtles are found; they are speared by fishermen and brought to market, but are only eaten by low-caste Hindus. Among snakes, the Cobra (*Naja*) is not very common. The *sanda*, *girgit*, *bhamani*, and monitor (*gosáp*) are all found in the District, but principally in the northern jungles. The *Python molurus* is not uncommon in the jungles near the town, and Dr Taylor mentions one measuring twenty feet. The *Typhlops* is usually found in alluvial soil, and is sometimes mistaken for an earth-worm. Among other species are comprised tree and water snakes, of which the latter are said to be very venomous. The frog, toad, and tree-frog are common. Among articulata the principal are the scorpion and centipede, but many other sorts are found, too numerous to mention.

POPULATION.—Repeated attempts have been made at an enumeration of the population. In 1801, the population of Dacca Jalálpur, which besides the present District comprised also the greater part of the neighbouring Districts of Faridpur and Bákarganj, was computed at 938,712 souls. In 1824, after the separation of Faridpur and Bákarganj, the Superintendent of Police estimated the population of Dacca at 512,385; and in 1851 it was officially returned at 600,000. At the time of the Revenue Survey (between 1857 and 1861) a further attempt at enumeration was made, when the number of houses was ascertained to be 209,889, and the population estimated at 904,615. The average number of inmates per house was reckoned at from four to five for different parts of the District, the latter being the figure generally taken. For the city of Dacca, however, the average number of inmates per house was only put down at three. This figure was much too low, as there are undoubtedly a greater number of inmates in the large town-houses of Dacca than in the small huts of the rural tracts. The statistics of the Lower Provinces of Bengal for 1868–69, issued by the Board of Revenue, estimated the number of houses in the District at 215,915, and the total population at 1,019,928.

A more exact Census was taken by authority of Government in the beginning of 1872, when all the previous estimates were found to be greatly exceeded. With regard to the selection and appointment of the enumerators employed in taking the Census, the Collector of the District reports as follows:—"As far as

possible schoolmasters were employed, but as a rule the work was done by the *zámíndárs' gumáshtás*, and I have much pleasure in recording that in no single instance had I to put the law in force and compel the appointment of enumerators. No indigenous agency survives in any form in this District, except in the villages to which the *Chaukídárí* (Rural Police) Act has been extended, and that cannot be called an institution which has *survived*. With the exception of villages where schoolmasters were employed, I may state broadly that the work was done by the landholders, their agents or servants. Necessarily the agency differed. Where a village belonged to a single *zámíndár*, his *gumáshtá* was, as a rule, the man employed; when the village was under several *tálukdárs*, one of them or his agent was employed. In some cases, again, the village *mátabbar*, or a son or hanger-on of his, did the work. In no case, to the best of my recollection, was a *chaukídár* appointed, nor are the *chaukídárs* sufficiently educated for such a duty. The landholders' agents are, as a rule, men who have received a fair Bengali education, can read and write, keep Bengali accounts, and survey in the Bengali fashion. They are generally Káyasths. They receive a small salary from their master and get *tahurí* on rents collected." The total number of enumerators employed was 3088, including 81 persons specially entertained and paid by municipalities for the enumeration of the town population.

There seems little reason to doubt the correctness of the Census. On this subject the Magistrate reports as follows:—"The house Census was taken all over the District on the morning of the 16th January (1872), and with wonderful correctness. The books were in many cases delayed, but in no case that has come under my notice was the Census not taken at the proper time. I have ridden over a great deal of the district since then, and questioned people everywhere in the *thánás* of Lálbágh, Sábhár, Mánikganj, Nawábganj, Jafarganj, and part of Harirámpur, and I find that the people universally say they were numbered correctly and simultaneously. I have also made inquiries from *mukhtárs* and others about their native villages, and they have assured me to the same effect. I was of opinion, when the order came out, that the Census Returns, to quote the words of the Orissa Commissioner, would 'not be worth the paper they were written on,' and repeatedly expressed this opinion to my superiors; but I have entirely changed my opinion, and, after a very considerable amount of local inquiries, can fairly say that I believe the Returns to be almost, if not entirely, correct."

ABSTRACT OF THE AREA AND POPULATION OF EACH POLICE CIRCLE (THÁNÁ) IN THE DISTRICT OF DACCA.

Subdivision.	Thána.	Area in square miles.	Number of villages, mauzás, or townships.	Number of houses.	Total population.	Averages calculated from preceding columns.				
						Persons per square mile.	Villages, mauzás, or townships per square mile.	Persons per village, mauzá, or township.	Houses per square mile.	Persons per house.
Headquarters. Subdivision.	Lálbágh,	319	517	37,835	210,806	661	1·62	408	·118	5·5
	Sábhár,	388	576	30,419	167,709	432	1·48	291	78	5·5
	Kápásiá,	411	507	16,320	106,235	258	1·23	210	39	6·5
	Ráipur,	301	419	21,074	155,110	515	1·39	370	70	7·4
	Rúpganj,	242	517	19,653	120,770	234	2·13	233	81	6·1
	Náráinganj,	117	491	17,860	109,533	936	4·19	223	152	6·1
	Nawábganj,	148	275	22,376	136,910	925	1·85	498	151	6·1
	Subdivisional total,	1,926	3,302	165,537	1,007,073	523	1·71	305	86	6·1
Munshíganj. Subdivision.	Munshíganj,	230	330	27,074	211,450	919	1·43	641	118	7·8
	Srínagar,	216	320	32,470	248,424	1,150	1·48	776	150	7·6
	Subdivisional total,	446	650	59,544	459,874	1,031	1·45	707	133	7·7
Mánikganj. Subdivision.	Mánikganj,	230	378	26,016	154,172	670	1·64	408	113	5·9
	Jafarganj,	203	473	26,703	154,153	759	2·33	326	131	5·7
	Harirámpur,	92	213	12,793	77,721	845	2·31	365	139	6·1
	Subdivisional total,	525	1,064	65,512	386,046	735	2·03	363	125	5·8
	District total,	2,897	5,016	290,593	1,852,993	640	1·73	369	100	6·4

Thus the results of the Census disclose a total population in Dacca District of 1,852,993 souls, inhabiting 290,593 houses. The table given on p. 33 illustrates the distribution of the population in each police circle (*thánd*) and subdivision, and its pressure per square mile, &c. The subdivisional figures will be reproduced on a subsequent page, when I come to treat of the political and administrative divisions of the District; the foregoing table exhibits them as a whole.

It will be seen that the total area given by the Census officers does not agree with that returned by the Surveyor-General, which amounts to 2902 square miles. The Collector states that the jurisdiction of the District, in the revenue, magisterial, and civil departments, is the same; the slight discrepancy of five miles between the Census area (2897) and the Surveyor-General's scarcely requires explanation.

The total number of males is 905,775, and of females 947,218, the proportion of males to the total population being 48·9 per cent., and the density of the population throughout the District 640 per square mile. Classified according to age, the Census returns of the population are as follow:—Hindus, under twelve years of age, males 133,842, females 114,219; above twelve years of age, males 248,643, females 297,085; total Hindus, 793,789. Muhammadans, under twelve years, males 220,710, females 187,280; above twelve years, males 298,378, females 343,763; total Muhammadans, 1,050,131. Buddhists, under twelve years, males *nil*, females *nil*; above twelve years of age, males 3, females 1; total, 4. Christians, under twelve years of age, males 1612, females 1491; above twelve years of age, males 2154, females 2587; total Christians, 7844. "Others," under twelve years of age, males 169, females 158; above twelve years, males 264, females 634; total of "others," 1225. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same class, especially observable in the Muhammadan community, is probably due to the fact that natives consider girls have attained womanhood at a much earlier age than boys reach manhood. The proportion of males to females in the total population of all ages is probably correct, viz., 48·9 per cent. The number of insanes in the District is returned at 805, or ·0434 per cent. of the total population; idiots are returned at 214, or ·0115 per cent. of the total population; deaf and dumb at 763, or ·0412 per cent. of the total population; blind at 1685, or ·0909 per cent. of the total population, and lepers at 852 or ·0460 per cent. of the total population. It is curious that in all the fore-

going classes of infirmities, the number of males afflicted is everywhere more than double that of the females.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION.—The following paragraphs showing the occupations of the people are condensed from the tabular statements appended to the Census Report of 1872. The figures must be taken as a rough approximation only, and the classification is in many respects unavoidably imperfect. I reproduce them, however, as the first organised effort of the kind.

OCCUPATIONS OF MALES.—CLASS I.—Persons employed under Government, or Municipal or other local authorities:—Military officers, 150; Government Police, 178; Rural Police, 3422; Covenanted Government servants, 2; subordinate judicial officers, 2; subordinate executive officers, 1; Public Works officials, 25; Post-office, 46; telegraph officers, 1; medical officers, 4; clerks, 17; Municipal officers, 1; others, 10; total of Class I., 3859.

CLASS II.—Professional persons, including professors of religion, education, literature, law, medicine, and the fine arts, &c.:—Ministers and Missionaries, 4; Hindu priests or *purohits*, 7110; spiritual guides, 848; astrologers (*áchárjyas*), 271; Muhammadan priests (*mullás*), 141; superintendents of Musalmán religious endowments (*matwálís*), 11; pilgrim guides (*pandás*), 130; reciters of the Sacred Law (*kathaks*), 2; *khundkárs*, 55; Professors of education, 1; schoolmasters, 922; Muhammadan clerks and interpreters, 1; Muhammadan law-doctors (*maulvís*), 4; authors, 12; newspaper editors, 4; barristers, 3; pleaders, 107; law-agents (*mukhtárs*), 99; revenue agents, 1; stamp vendors, 37; doctors, 139; Hindu medical practitioners (*kabirájs*), 1772; vaccinators, 12; cow-doctors (*gobaidyas*), 1; men-midwives, 174; musicians, 3340; singers, 340; dancers, 11; actors, 6; jugglers, 12; painters, 181; snake-charmers, 78; surveyors (*ámíns*), 54; civil engineers, 1; total of Class II., 15,884.

CLASS III.—Persons in service, or engaged in performing personal offices:—Personal servants, 5348; cooks, 119; assistant cooks (*masálchís*), 91; barbers, 4889; washermen (*dhobás*), 2719; sweepers (*mihtars*), 337; water-carriers (*bhistís*), 48; gardeners, 390; Hindu birth and marriage registrars (*ghataks*), 135; doorkeepers, 524; unspecified, 27,321; total of Class III., 41,839.

CLASS IV.—Persons engaged in agriculture, or with animals:—Superior landlords (*zamíndárs*) 1970; subordinate landlords (*talúkdárs*), 9333; large lease-holders (*ijárádárs*), 57; holders of rent-free

(*lákhiráj*) lands, 57; permanent lease-holders (*patnídárs*), 77; cultivators, 280,698; small proprietors (*hawáládárs*), 1; land stewards, 41; rent collectors, 2566; village accountants (*patwárís*), 266; holders of land on a tenure of military service (*páiks*), 56; *zamíndári* servants, 394; financial managers (*díwáns*), 30; village head-men, 96; *daffádárs*, 8; deputies (*náibs*), 6; cattle dealers, 111; dealers in buffaloes, 1; dealers in poultry, 4; cowherds, 936; jockeys, 1; elephant drivers, 7; grooms, 64; grasscutters, 24; hunters, 15; total of Class III., 296,819.

CLASS V.—Persons engaged in commerce and trade, as in the conveyance of persons and goods, or keeping or lending money or sale of goods:—Carters, 5; bullock drivers, 10; palankin bearers, 1514; *khálásís*, 27; cart owners, 44; *sardárs*, 24; shipmasters, 4; seamen, 11; boatmen, 22,970; farmers of ferries, 14; divers, 13; boat owners, 807; lascars, 50; keepers of grain stores (*áratdárs*), 157; weighmen, 44; bankers and merchants (*mahájans*), 1634; pawnbrokers (*poddárs*), 20; money changers, 12; cashiers, 1; money lenders, 6951; merchants, 1632; commission agents (*páikárs*), 21,16; petty dealers (*bepáris*), 387; cotton dealers, 64; shopkeepers, 20,109; dealers in miscellaneous goods, 85; brokers (*dáláls*), 360; writers (*karánís*), 32; shopmen, 5; messengers (*piyádás*), 764; vernacular writers and clerks (*muharrirs*), 1199; business managers, 1; total of Class V., 61,066.

CLASS VI.—Persons employed in mechanical arts, manufactures, and engineering operations, and in the sale of goods manufactured or prepared for consumption:—(1) Manufacturers—Indigo manufacturers, 11; tar manufacturers, 4; jute manufacturers, 2. (2) Constructive art—Contractors, 1; brick-masons (*rájmistrís*), 1458; stone-masons, 17; brickmakers, 28; lime-burners, 200; sawyers, 273; carpenters, 2529; thatchers, 981; brick dealers, 13; well-diggers, 206; boat builders, 1420. (3) Miscellaneous artisans—Blacksmiths, 2507; braziers, 1; workers in bell-metal and copper (*kánsáris*), 489; wire-drawers, 3; goldsmiths, 3260; gold washers, 5; watchmakers, 15; potters, 3788; glass vendors, 125; cabinetmakers, 1753; makers of idols, 143; mat-makers, 636; fan-makers, 2; basket-makers, 214; reed-workers, 29; toymakers, 3; beadmakers, 57; *hookah*-makers, 33; makers of garlands, 38; shell carvers, 817; cane-workers, 81; workers in pith (*solá*), 954; makers of looms, 8; cotton carders, 75; cotton spinners, 84; silk weavers, 2; cotton weavers, 17,876; jute weavers, 24; hemp weavers, 3; dyers, 52; tailors, 2244; gold-lace makers,

6; shoemakers, 223; cloth vendors, 3305; ornament makers; 241; umbrella makers, 10; gunny-bag makers, 1698; net-makers, 19; cloth printers, 5; thread sellers, 48; embroiderers, 1310; printers, 23; bookbinders (*daftris*), 182; booksellers, 1; paper makers, 97. (4) Dealers in vegetable food—Oil sellers, 2504; grain sellers, 4; rice sellers, 207; spice sellers, 90; grain huskers, 35; bakers, 6; grain parchers, 56; costermongers, 65; confectioners, 26; sellers of molasses (*gur*), 373; sellers of honey, 44. (5) Dealers in animal food—Butchers, 124; fishermen, 23,340; milkmen, 6415; butter sellers, 3. (6) Dealers in drinks—Brewers and distillers, 6; spirit sellers, 91; toddy sellers, 1822. (7) Dealers in stimulants—Tobacco sellers, 14; opium sellers, 2; *ganjá* sellers, 43; *pán* sellers, 2752. (8) Dealers in perfumes, drugs, medicines, &c.—Salt sellers, 17; firework sellers, 2; *tiká* sellers, 50. (9) Dealers in vegetable and animal substances—Firewood sellers, 1060; bamboo sellers, 1; thatch sellers, 6; rope sellers, 2; hide dealers, 2301; total of Class VI., 91,162.

CLASS VII.—Miscellaneous persons not classed otherwise:—Pensioners, 76; beggars and paupers, 5484; labourers, 25,954; unemployed, 7138; male children, 356,494; total of Class VII., 395,146; grand total of males, 905,775.

EMPLOYMENT OF FEMALES.—The general caution which I have given with regard to the foregoing statistics of occupations of the people applies with special force to this Section.

CLASS I.—*Nil.*

CLASS II.—Professional females:—Priestesses, 371; female spiritual guides (*gurus*), 117; female astrologers, 4; school-mistresses, 1; midwives (*dáis*), 114; Muhammadan female doctors (*hakims*), 6; Hindu female doctors (*kabirájs*), 61; musicians, 13; singers, 4; dancers, 13; painters, 32; total, 736.

CLASS III.—Females in service, or performing personal offices:—Ayahs, 1734; nurses, 2; female cooks, 37; female barbers, 36; washerwomen, 187; female sweepers, 12; prostitutes, 1738; total, 3746.

CLASS IV.—Females employed in agriculture and with animals:—Female landlords (*zamíndárs*), 278; female permanent lease-holders, (*patnidárs*), 3; female proprietors of rent-free lands (*lákhirájdárs*), 80; female dependent landlords (*tálukdárs*), 1299; female cultivators, 5059; dealers in goats, 2; female cowherds, 21; total, 6742.

CLASS V.—Females engaged in commerce and trade:—Boat-

owners, 5; money lenders, 638; retail dealers, 149; shopkeepers, 1394; commission agents, 74; petty dealers (*bepáris*), 238; total, 2498.

CLASS VI.—Females employed in manufactures, and in the sale of goods manufactured or prepared for consumption:—Dealers in pottery, 133; dealers in lime, 2; cane-workers, 10; basket-makers, 38; mat-makers, 54; broom sellers, 1; garland sellers, 24; toy-makers, 3; spinners, 4979; weavers, 507; dyers, 5; female tailors, 231; gunny-bag makers, 18; net-makers, 52; ornament sellers, 14; shoemakers, 7; thread sellers, 3; cloth vendors, 65; rice dealers, 273; costermongers, 28; dealers in oil, 44; flour sellers, 5; grain parchers, 122; grain huskers, 2920; fishwomen, 1047; milk sellers, 613; spirit sellers, 2; *pán* sellers, 21; *ganjá* sellers, 6; sellers of tooth-powder, 3; dealers in firewood, 221; hide dealers, 104; total, 11,555.

CLASS VII.—Miscellaneous females, not classed otherwise:—Female house owners, 4; pensioners, 3; beggars and paupers, 3322; labourers, 1078; unemployed, 614,386; female children, 303,148; total, 921,941; grand total of females, 947,218.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—The Muhammadans form the majority of the population of Dacca District. They number 1,050,131, or 56·7 per cent. of the total population; the Hindus amount to 793,789, or 42·9 per cent. The Buddhists are only returned at 4 throughout the whole District. The remaining ·4 per cent. is made up of Christians, who are returned at 7844, and of persons belonging to other religions, who are returned at 1225.

The District Census compilation thus classifies the different nationalities, races, castes, &c., with the respective numbers of each:—

NAME OF RACE OR CASTE.	
I.—NON-ASIATICS.	
European.	
English,	93
Irish,	13
Scotch,	13
Welsh,	2
French,	37
Greek,	14
Italian,	3
Pole,	1
Portuguese,	17
Total,	193
American.	
West Indian,	1
Others,	1
Total,	2
TOTAL OF NON-ASIATICS,	195
II.—MIXED RACES.	
Eurasian,	5,627
III.—ASIATICS.	
A.—Other than Natives of India and Burmah.	
Armenians,	121

Name of Race or Caste.	
B.—Natives of India and British Burmah.	
1.—*Aboriginal Tribes.*	
Bhar,	55
Bhumij,	11
Gáro,	13
Nat,	844
Santál,	1
Tipperah,	38
Uráon,	2
Total,	964
2.—*Semi-Hinduised Aborigines.*	
Bágdí,	1,505
Báheliá,	1
Báurí,	14
Bediyá,	9
Bind,	153
Buná,	840
Chain,	1
Chámár and Muchí	24,063
Chandál,	191,162
Dom,	641
Dosadh,	49
Hárí,	1,954
Káorá,	284
Koch,	10,928
Rájbansí,	4,363
Mál,	4,663
Mandái,	309
Mihtar,	2,316
Bhuimálí,	7,267
Pán,	52
Pásí,	19
Shikárí,	27
Total,	250,620
3.—*Hindus.*	
(i.)—Superior Castes.	
Bráhman,	51,632
Rájput,	1,665
Ghátwál,	11
Total,	53,308

Name of Race or Caste.	
(ii.)—Intermediate Castes.	
Káyasth,	102,084
Baidya,	8,420
Total,	110,504
(iii.)—Trading Castes.	
Kshattriya,	621
Barnawár,	64
Baniá,	431
Gandhabanik,	6,634
Subarnabanik,	4,696
Total,	12,446
(iv.)—Pastoral Castes.	
Goálá,	22,788
(v.)—Castes engaged in preparing Cooked Food.	
Kundu,	805
Gánrár,	806
Hálwái,	1,591
Madak,	521
Total,	3,723
(vi.)—Agricultural Castes.	
Kaibartta,	32,317
Sadgop,	1,085
Agurí,	313
Chásá Dhopá,	2,409
Dalui,	741
Kheyatilam,	599
Parásar Dás,	175
Bárui,	15,931
Támlí,	200
Málí,	2,757
Koerí,	838
Kurmí,	508
Total,	57,873

Name of Race or Caste.	
(vii.)—Castes engaged chiefly in Personal Service.	
Dhobá,	9,615
Hajjám and Nápit,	18,208
Behárá,	1,226
Káhár,	1,436
Total,	30,485
(viii.)—Artisan Castes.	
Kámár (blacksmith),	12,072
Kánsárí (brazier),	464
Sonár (goldsmith),	292
Sutradhar (carpenter),	15,907
Kumár (potter),	14,835
Láherí (lac-worker),	2
Kacháru (glass-maker),	305
Sánkhárí (shell-cutter),	853
Surí (distiller),	63,511
Telí (oilman),	13,155
Kalu (ditto),	556
Total,	121,952
(ix.)—Weaver Castes.	
Tántí,	8,906
Hansí,	65
Khatbá,	130
Jogí,	16,410
Kapálí,	17,017
Total,	42,528
(x.)—Labouring Castes.	
Beldár,	172
Chunárí,	605
Matiál,	79
Patiál,	1,241
Total,	2,097
(xi.)—Castes occupied in Selling Fish and Vegetables.	None.

Name of Race or Caste.	
(xii.)—Boating and Fishing Castes.	
Jáliá,	32,269
Jhál,	938
Pátní,	4,695
Pod,	101
Patur,	439
Muriyárí,	21
Báthuá,	141
Tior,	7,988
Málá,	5,567
Mánjhí,	870
Total,	53,029
(xiii.)—Dancer, Musician, Beggar, and Vagabond Castes.	
Báití,	779
Kán,	83
Nagarchí,	24
Total,	886
(xiv.)—Persons enumerated by Nationality only.	
Hindustání,	189
Panjábí,	60
Assamese,	1
Total,	250
(xv.)—Persons of unknown or unspecified Castes,	19,568
Grand Total of Hindus,	531,437
4.—*Persons of Hindu origin not recognising Caste.*	
Vaishnav,	11,886
Mahant,	104
Native Christians,	1,901
Total,	13,891

NAME OF RACE OR CASTE.	
5.—Muhammadans.	
Julahá or Jolá, . . .	10,464
Mughul, ...	17
Pathán, ...	1,134
Sayyid, ...	445
Shaikh, ...	13,247
Unspecified, . . .	1,024,824
Total,	1,050,131

NAME OF RACE OR CASTE.	
6.—Burmese.	
Maghs, ...	7
TOTAL NATIVES OF INDIA,	1,847,050
TOTAL OF ASIATICS, .	1,847,171
GRAND TOTAL, . .	1,852,993

The foregoing table agrees in totals with that originally given in the Census Report, but differs slightly from it in minor details of classification. Thus, some native Christians were erroneously included among non-Asiatics in the Census Report. The totals of Eurasians and Armenians were also slightly incorrect, but the general total of Christians is returned at the same figure, 7844, both in the general Census Report and the District Census Compilation subsequently prepared. Throughout this District Account, I have taken the figures as given in the later Compilation.

HILL TRIBES AND SEMI-ABORIGINAL LOW CASTES.—The following is a brief account of the hill tribes and semi-aboriginal low castes found in Dacca District. Their numbers as given in the foregoing table are: Aborigines, 964; Semi-Hinduised Aborigines, 250,620.

(1.) MANIPURÍS.—Two classes of these people are met with in the District. The Collector, in 1871, reported that the first class consisted of eleven political refugees, who had been removed from the frontier by order of Government to prevent their fomenting disturbances and making raids on Manipur. These people have a settlement at Tezgáon, a short distance north of Dacca city. They are all supported by Government; five of them, in 1871, receiving pensions varying from £1, 4s. to £9 per month, while the remainder received a subsistence allowance at the rate of sixpence a day for men, fourpence halfpenny for women, and threepence for children. Some of them cultivate a little land, but the majority, being men of good family, do nothing. The other division of Manipurís are voluntary settlers, and in 1871 numbered about twenty-five souls. They came to the District about twenty-five years ago, owing to disturbances in their own country, and gain their subsistence by agriculture and cloth-weaving. They do

not amalgamate or intermarry with the people of the District, but get their wives from their own country. Some of them are well-to-do, and they have all settled down into peaceful occupations. Both classes of Manipuris are Hindus, and are subdivided into Bráhmans, Kshattriyas, and Súdras, in the same manner as Hindus of other parts of India. No separate mention of these Dacca Manipuris is made in the Census Statistics.

(2.) TIPPERAHS.—About a hundred of these men were imported from the semi-independent State of Hill Tipperah about five years ago by a wealthy landholder of Dacca, Rái Kálí Náráyan Rái Chaudhrí, Bahádur, of Jaidebpur, for the purpose of clearing his jungle estates in the Fiscal Division of Bháwál. They cut down and sell the timber, and are allowed to cultivate the land rent free for a time, after which they move to new land. The number at present in the District, according to the Census Report of 1872, is 38.

(3.) THE KOCHS are a considerable tribe who also live in the Bháwál jungles, and gain a subsistence by agriculture and charcoal-burning. In religion they are said to be nominally Hindus, but they have no caste system, and never amalgamate with the people of the District. The Collector states that they originally came to Dacca about five or six generations ago. But beyond a tradition of a king named Dugu, whose territory was in the Darang Hills, in Assam, and a tradition that they were forced to emigrate from their own country by famine, they are altogether ignorant of their history. The tribe is a numerous one, but its members are so scattered throughout the jungle, that the Collector reports it impossible to state their numbers. The Census of 1872 returned them at 10,928. They live together in families, and do not carry on their agricultural operations in common, or upon the tribal system.

(4.) THE BANSÍS OR RÁJBANSÍS came originally from Kuch Behar six or seven generations ago, but can give no reason for their immigration. The Collector states that this tribe is evidently a hill people, but they have now lost all remembrance of their own country, and cannot even state where it was. The Collector has been unable to find any trace or records of their immigration, but they must have come to the District in considerable numbers. The Rájbansís keep themselves aloof from the rest of the population, and never amalgamate with them, although admitted as

a caste of the general Hindu community. They are permanent settlers, and follow the same occupations as the Kochs, of which tribe, indeed, they are said to be an offshoot. The upper classes of aboriginal Kochs, when they embrace Hinduism, become Rájbansís. A full description of these people will be given in my "Statistical Account of Kuch Behar," the original home of the race. The number of Rájbansís in Dacca, according to the Census Return, is 4363.

(5.) THE BUNÁS are hill men from the Santál Districts, and live in clusters around the indigo factories. There is also a settlement of them in Bháwál. They profess Hinduism, but are not recognised by the orthodox members of the Hindu community. They principally employ themselves in cultivation, and as labourers on the indigo factories. Their number in 1872 was returned at 840.

The foregoing five classes were originally hill tribes, and, with the exception of the Tipperahs, who were imported, and the political prisoners among the Manipurís, all came of their own accord, and are permanent settlers. There is now no voluntary immigration by aboriginal races into the District, the last comers, the Tipperahs, having been imported for a specific purpose.

(6.) THE BEDIYÁS, a wandering, gypsy-like tribe, number about 1000 in the District. The Census Report, according to its classification, however, only returns nine individuals of this class in Dacca. The Bediyás make their appearance in great numbers at Munshíganj during the Kártik Báruní festival, held in October. They are now said to be rapidly becoming Musalmáns, in name at least. The present (1871) Collector of the District states that when he first knew these people, a Bediyá, upon being asked to what religion he belonged, generally hesitated as to whether he was a Hindu or a Musalmán, but now they almost invariably profess themselves to be followers of the Prophet, although they do not abstain from the use of intoxicating liquors. They generally live in boats on the rivers. Although they have always had the reputation of being expert thieves—and indeed a hereditary robber caste—in other Districts, the Collector states that they are not a predatory tribe in Dacca. In support of this view, he says that he cannot remember a single case of a Bediyá being convicted of theft in Dacca, and that the number of thefts and petty robberies about Munshíganj does not increase while they are there. As a rule, they are able to live comfortably on their earnings, and although few would hesitate to commit

a petty theft, the Collector does not think them to be worse than their neighbours. When they do come into our Courts, which is not often, it is generally on account of some dispute about a woman. The following account of their occupation is extracted from page 7 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division:"—"The Bediyás are excellent divers, and in the cold season fish for fresh-water mussels, in the shells of which they occasionally find small pearls. Of these they make ornaments for the nose and ears, and sell the shells, which are applied by the natives to a variety of domestic purposes. They sell necklaces of tiger's claws, beads, and other trinkets; medicines and spices, and also manufacture the *hanás*, or bamboo combs used by the weavers to separate the threads of their webs. They practise cupping—using the sharp teeth of the *kankilá* fish to puncture the skin, and the tip of a cow's horn, with which they draw off the blood by suction. The Bediyás are expert hunters and fowlers, and snare or shoot birds for the sake of their feathers. They amuse the villagers with tricks of jugglery, bear and monkey dancing, and when all else fails, generally betake themselves to stealing. Like the gypsies in other countries, they are partial to poultry, and their boats are generally well supplied with live stock. They eat all kinds of animal food, and are addicted to the use of *ganjá* and spirituous liquors. To this caste belong the *bágh-máriás* or tiger-killers, and the *bhindus*, who search for grain in the burrows of rats."

IMMIGRATION OF EUROPEAN NATIONS.—The PORTUGUESE were the first European people who visited this part of India. In 1517 John de Silveyra arrived with four vessels from the Maldives, with the intention of establishing a factory at Bengala (or Dacca?). Failing in this, he was allowed to settle at Chittagong, and appears to have lived chiefly by piracy in the estuaries of the Meghná, and by assisting the native princes in their wars with each other. A fuller account of the earlier Portuguese, and their mode of livelihood, will be found in the "Statistical Account of Noákhálí District." In 1621 a body of Portuguese mercenaries accompanied Nawáb Ibrahim Khán as gunners of his fleet, when he was pursued by the Emperor Sháh Jahán to Rájmahal; and about 1663 a considerable number of them deserted from the service of the Rájá of Arákán at the time he was attacked by Shaistá Khán, and received from that general a grant of land in Dacca, where they settled. The present Portuguese, or Firinghis, as they are termed, are the descendants of these men who are said to have

been settled at Firinghi Bázár, near Munshíganj. The Collector of the District, however, doubts whether this was not merely one of several settlements. At the present day they are settled in various parts of the District, but chiefly in Ráipurá and Rúpganj, to the north of Dacca city. They have churches at Nágarí, Bándurá, and Hasanábád. From constant intermarriages with women of the country they have now become similar in appearance to the natives (but as a rule have larger cheek-bones and more marked features), and have entirely adopted native habits. The Firinghis, however, of the present day never intermarry with any but Christians. There are two churches at Nawábganj; one belonging to the original Goa Mission, and the other directly under the Church of Rome. The Collector is of opinion that it is chiefly due to this second mission that the Christian population of Dacca has not fallen so low as their brethren in Chittagong, the missionaries being men of very superior education to the Goa priests. The whole of the Christians to the north of Dacca, and about half of those in the southern part of the District, belong to the Goa Church, and these men have an advantage over the others, as they are employed as husbandmen by their own priests. They are generally well-to-do cultivators, but they also supply a great many domestics to Calcutta, chiefly ayahs or nurses, and cooks. They have retained the Portuguese names to a greater extent than their Chittagong brethren, and such names as Domingo Costa (the prefix of Da to the surname being invariably omitted), Manuel de Cruz, or Lewis Gomez, are common. In ordinary language, however, Domingo becomes "Dengu," and Manuel "Munnoo." In fact, the baptismal name is one only resumed on great occasions, except by a few of the leading families, and even among them there is a tendency to corrupt their names. A Firinghi landholder (*tálúkdár*) to the north of the town, whose name is Harry Fraser, invariably writes and pronounces it as "Hari Praser."

✓ THE ENGLISH appear to have settled in Dacca about 1660. Tavernier alludes to the English Factory, and mentions the name of its chief in 1666, about which time Indian muslins were first introduced into England. The following is condensed from Mr Taylor's "Topography of Dacca," 1840:—In 1678 the Company's agents presented Sultán Muhammad Azim with an offering of upwards of £2000, in exchange for which they received his order for a free trade without payment of duties. In 1686 the Factory was confiscated by Shaistá Khán, and three years later the whole of the property

of the Company in Bengal was seized by order of the Emperor Aurangzeb, and the English in Dacca were placed in irons. Prior to 1760, however, the number of Company's servants attached to the Dacca Factory did not exceed five in number. In 1778 there were thirty-seven English residents in the District, and in 1838 forty-seven, In 1867 the Magistrate reported the number of European, East Indian, and Armenian residents, official and non-official, at sixty-nine, but this must have been only for the city. In 1872 the number of Europeans and East Indians in the District was returned in the Census Report at 5820.

THE ARMENIAN community are decreasing rapidly both in wealth and numbers. At one time they formed a large and flourishing part of the population, but in 1871 they were reduced to less than one hundred in number, of whom six were landed proprietors, two were merchants, four were shopkeepers, and the rest followed various occupations. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total Armenian population in the District of 121. The Armenian community are undergoing a change at present, abandoning to a great extent their old conservative manners, and adopting European habits and customs. The Collector in 1871 stated that so far the change had not been for the better, but admitted that its full results have yet to be seen.

GREEKS.—There are very few Greeks in Dacca now, although they once formed an important body. According to the Census of 1872 the European Greeks number only fourteen in the District. They are now too few to keep up a church for themselves, and have closed it for some years. One family, the Paniotys, are considerable landed proprietors, but their estates are chiefly situated in Bákarganj District. The Greeks, like the Armenians, are declining in wealth and numbers.

EMIGRATION.—There is no emigration from the District properly so called. Many Hindus, however, resort to Benares, Brindában, or some other sacred shrine, to die there; and some Musalmáns go on pilgrimages, but not in great numbers.

CASTES.—The following is a list of the principal castes in the District, compiled chiefly from Dr Taylor's "Topography of Dacca," the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," with a few alterations by the Collector, rendered necessary by recent changes among the people. I have also added several castes given in the Census Report, but which are not mentioned by the Collector, or in either

of the two works just quoted; along with whatever information could be collected as to the occupations, manners, and customs of each caste; and have arranged them as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local public estimation. The numbers of each caste are taken from the Census Report of 1872. (1) Bráhmans, the caste highest in the social scale; the old priesthood of the Hindu system, and now largely employed as ministerial officers, clerks, &c., in our Courts. A separate description of Bráhmanism in its different subdivisions will be given on a subsequent page. Number in 1872, according to the Census Report, 51,632. (2) Baidya; this caste ranks next to the Bráhmans. They are chiefly employed as physicians, ministerial officers, and landed proprietors, and may be considered as the upper middle class of the District. They are said to have sprung from the Súdra caste, but claim for themselves a higher descent. The investiture of the sacred cord was purchased for this caste about a hundred years ago by Rájá Ráj-Ballabh of Rájnagar, Prime Minister, and afterwards Governor of Dacca under the Muhammadan Government. The thread, however, differs from the true Bráhmanical cord, in consisting of only two instead of three strings. The Census Report of 1872 gives the number of Baidyas in the District at 8420. (3) Kshattriyas; this class is theoretically the second in the Hindu social organisation, but it is doubted whether there are now any pure Kshattriyas in Bengal, and at the present day, instead of forming a warrior class, they are returned in the Census as a trading caste. Their number in 1872 was returned at 621. (4) Rájput, employed in military service, as police constables, messengers, door-keepers, &c.; number in 1872, 1665. (5) Ghátwál, employed in the same manner as the foregoing; eleven in number in 1872. (6) Káyasth; this caste is considered to belong to the Súdras, although its members claim a higher rank for themselves. Most of them are employed as pleaders, accountants, writers and treasurers, by the large landholders, or in the Government Courts. They numbered 102,084 in 1872.

Next to the Káyasths come the pure castes of undoubted Súdras, of which (7) the Tántís or weavers are stated by the Collector to have formed at one time the most numerous class in the District. This branch of industry has, however, considerably declined of late years, and their numbers have consequently fallen off. In 1872 they amounted to 8906. They are divided into two classes, called Jhappaniyá and Chotbágiyá, who neither eat together nor

intermarry. They all reside in one street, which is named after the caste, nearly all their dwellings being substantial masonry buildings. (8) The Sánkháris, or shell-cutters, are an industrious and hard-working community, said to be exceedingly penurious, and are undoubtedly a well-to-do class. In 1872 this caste numbered 853 in the District. (9) Kámár; blacksmiths, and sometimes workers in gold and silver; number, 12,072. (10) Kánsárí; braziers and coppersmiths. They are said to be very neat workmen, and excel in making small boxes and *hookah* stands; their number in 1872 amounted to 464. (11) Kumár; potters. These people chiefly carry on their business in the suburbs, where they make toys and earthenware articles; number, 14,835. (12) Sadgop Goálá; milkmen; numerous in the town of Dacca. They purchase milk from the country people, and also keep cows in the villages. (13) Ahirá Goálá; another caste of milkmen and cow-keepers, but few in number in this part of the country. Those that reside in the town keep the *deswáli* or up-country breed of cattle, and sell clarified butter (*ghi*). A few of them also act in the capacity of cattle doctors, in which their services are in great request. The Census Returns of 1872 give the number of Goálás at 22,788. (14) Málákar; gardeners, makers of artificial flower garlands, pyrotechnists; number, 2757. (15) Nápit; barbers and surgeons; most of them come from Tipperah; number, 18,208. (16) Bárui, Támlí or Támbulí; growers and sellers of *pán* or betel leaf. These, although they originally formed one caste, are now distinct, although they both follow the same occupations, and rank equally high in social esteem; number in 1872, Báruis, 15,931; Támbulís, 200. The above list comprises the whole of the pure castes, and differs from that prevailing in other parts of India, inasmuch as some castes, particularly the weavers, are included in the esteemed classes, whereas in other parts they are looked down upon. On the other hand, castes which are held to be pure elsewhere are excluded from the list in this District.

The less respectable castes are as follow. They comprise a large proportion of the classes engaged in trade, and indeed constitute the majority of the Hindu population:—(17) Ganak; degraded Bráhmans; few in number in the District. They are employed in making and decorating idols, and also as astrologers and fortune-tellers, and the Census Report does not mention them as a separate caste. Their numbers are probably included with those of the pure Bráhmans. (18) Agradání Bráhmans. These are considered still

more degraded than the preceding class, from accepting the first gifts offered at a *srádddha* or funeral ceremony. The gifts usually presented to them consist of grain, oil-seeds, clothes, a small piece of gold or silver, and generally a cow or calf; but before they are entitled to them they have to partake of the boiled rice consecrated to the corpse. This caste is few in number in Dacca, and is not specified in the Census Return; their numbers being probably included with those of the other Bráhmans. (19) Barnawárs; probably an up-country trading caste; number in the District in 1872, according to the Census, 64. (20) Tilí, or Telí; oil-sellers and oil-pressers by caste, but many of them have now abandoned their hereditary occupation, and have become wealthy grain merchants. Their number in Dacca, as returned by the Census of 1872, was 13,155. (21) Sadgop; cultivators; a different caste to the Sadgop goálás mentioned above; 1085 in number. (22) Gandhbanik; spice dealers and shopkeepers; generally well-to-do; 6634 in number. In other parts of Bengal this is reckoned as one of the pure Súdra castes, but in Dacca it is returned as an inferior caste. (23) Sutradhar; carpenters; principally employed in felling trees, sawing timber, building boats, and making ploughs; number 15,907 in the District. (24) Subarna Banik; this caste comprises nearly all the money-lenders in the city, and are also dealers in English goods, cloth, precious stones, &c.; 4696 in number. (25) Sáo, or Sháhá; mostly dealers in grain, sugar, betel-nut, salt, and country produce. Some of them are wealthy, and have large landed estates. Not entered as a separate caste in the Census Return. (26) Kapáli; weavers of sack cloth, and makers of rope and bags; many are also employed as bullock drivers; their number was returned at 17,017 in 1872. (27) Patiál; makers of the fine *sítalpáti* mats used for sleeping on; 1241 in number. (28) Pátní; ferrymen, who also make baskets, and buy and sell fish; 4695 in number. (29) Kaibartta; this caste is divided into two classes—the Cháshi Kaibarttas, who are ploughmen and cultivators, and the Jálwá Kaibarttas, or fishermen; their number in 1872 amounted to 32,317. (30) Madak, or Mayrá; confectioners; 521 in number. (31) Hálwái; up-country confectioners; 1591 in number. (32) Gánrár; sellers and preparers of parched rice, &c.; 806 in number. (33) Kundú; preparers of cooked food; 805 in number. (34) Agurí; cultivators; a caste newly sprung up; 313 in number. (35) Dalui; cultivators and agricultural labourers; 741 in number. (36) Kurmí; an up-country caste of servants and

labourers; 508 in number. (37) Kheyatilam; an agricultural labouring caste; 599 in number. (38) Parásar Dás; cultivators and labourers; 175 in number; (39) Chásá Dhopá; agriculturists; 2409 in number. (40) Sekerá; goldsmiths and jewellers; 292 in number. (41) Vaishnav; a Hindu religious sect rather than a caste. A full account of this class will be given on a subsequent page. The Census Return gives the number of Vaishnavs in Dacca District at 11,886.

The following are the very low and despised castes:—(42) Dhobá; washermen, principally residing in the city; 9615 in number. (43) Dom; fishers, corpse-bearers; they also keep pigs, and make baskets; 641 in number. (44) Jogí; a numerous class, employed in weaving coarse country cloth. Unlike other Hindu castes, instead of burning they bury their dead; 16,410 in number. (45) Chandál; employed as cultivators, grasscutters, gardeners, boatmen, and palanquin bearers; a numerous class, especially in the north of the District; their number in 1872 amounted to 191,162. (46) Garwárá; a caste said to be peculiar to Dacca. They live by spearing otters, turtles, porpoises, and alligators, the first for the sake of its skin, and the last three for the oil, which they sell for medicinal purposes; these people are not entered in the Census Return. (47) Chámár; a most despised caste, who prepare hides, make shoes, harness, drums, and also the gut strings for the bows used in cleaning cotton; they are also employed as musicians in marriage processions; 24,063 in number. (48) Bhuimálí; some employed as gardeners, and many as town sweepers and scavengers; 7267 in number. (49) Koch, and (50) Rájbansí. These people have been already mentioned on a previous page, and are principally employed in clearing jungle, cultivating rice, oil-seeds, cotton, &c. The Census Returns give the number of the former at 10,928, and of the latter at 4363. (51) Kacháru; glass makers; 305 in number. (52) Koerí; agriculturists; 838 in number. (53) Hansí; weavers; 65 in number. (54) Surí; wine sellers; 63,511 in number. (55) Khatbá; weavers; 130 in number. (56) Beldár; day labourers; 172 in number. (57) Chunárí; preparers of shell lime; 605 in number. (58) Matiál; day labourers; 79 in number. (59) Pod; fishermen; 101 in number. (60) Tior; fishermen and boatmen, 7988. (61) Jaliá; fishermen and boatmen; 32,269 in number. (62) Jhál; fishermen and boatmen; 938 in number. (63) Málá, and (64) Mánjhi; boatmen; the former numbering 5567, and the latter 870. (65) Patur; fishermen

and boatmen; 439 in number. (66) Báití; mat makers; 779 in number. (67) Bágdí; day labourers, fishermen, cultivators, &c.; 1505 in number. (68) Duliá; palanquin bearers and fishermen; 1226 in number. (69) Muriyárí; fishermen; 21 in number. (70) Láherí, or Nurí; makers of lac ornaments and bracelets; 2 in number. (71) Rawání Káhár; an up-country caste of palanquin bearers; 1436 in number. (72) Mál; snake-charmers; 4663 in number. (73) Hárí; swineherds and sweepers; 1954 in number. (74) Mihtar; sweepers; 2316 in number. (75) Shikárí; hunters; 27 in number. (76) Bediyás; a wandering gypsy-like tribe, chiefly living in boats, and already described on a previous page. The Census Return gives their number at 9. The following are all aboriginal or semi-aboriginal low castes, who occupy themselves principally as labourers, but some of them have a small plot of ground which they cultivate for themselves:—(77) Bathuá; 141. (78) Kán; 83. (79) Nagarchí; 24. (80) Báheliá; 1. (81) Báurí; 14. (82) Bind; 153. (83) Chain; 1. (84) Dosadh; 49. (85) Pásí; 19. (86) Pán; 52. (87) Káorá; 284. (88) Mandái; 309. (89) Buná; 340. (90) Gáro; 13. (91) Bhar; 55. (92) Bhumíj; 11. (93) Nat; 844. (94) Santál; 1; and (95) Uráon, 2.

The only Hindu caste which has declined from its former rank or numbers are the weaving classes. They have been impoverished by competition of the District produce with English piece goods. Most of them, however, now betake themselves to other occupations and trade, and a large number of them have received a good English education. It is only the poorer members of the caste, who have adhered to the family calling, who have seriously suffered. The Armenians and Greeks have also declined in numbers and importance of late years, and the Collector of the District considers their decay to be chiefly owing to the spread of English education among the natives. Formerly the Greeks and Armenians, but more particularly the latter, were the middlemen in all dealings between the English and natives, but this has now entirely ceased, and when the necessity for such an occupation no longer existed, those who practised it naturally declined in numbers, rank, and importance. With the exception of the Bediyás (described on pages 43, 44) there is no predatory clan or caste in the District, and it is doubtful whether the term can be rightly applied to this people. In the town of Dacca, however, there are about sixty *kichaks*, the children of a gang of professional Jessor thieves who were all convicted. They

are chiefly employed by the Municipality, and are mentioned as being the descendants of a predatory class.

Religious Division of the People.—According to the figures given by the Revenue Survey, the number of Hindus and Musalmáns is stated to be 455,182 and 449,223 respectively. No mention was made as to the number of persons professing other religions, and with the exception of the Firinghis and native Christians, the only other religion represented in the District is Buddhism. The Census of 1872 returned the following results of the religious classification of the people:—The Muhammadans number 1,050,131, or 56·7 per cent. of the total population; the Hindus are 793,789, or 42·9 per cent. of the total population; the Christians, 7844, or ·4 per cent. of the population. The number of Buddhists is only returned at 4, and of "others" at 1255.

The Bráhmans.—There are no Bráhmans in the Dacca District who cultivate with their own hands. The Bráhmans, as a rule, still retain their ancient hold on the popular mind; and the strong sense of superiority over the masses, with the self-respect and pride produced by caste, prevents them from following either agriculture or any other profession requiring manual labour, which they consider degrading. They are generally able to mark out for themselves walks of life which they consider as respectable. The following is a very brief account of the Bráhmanical rites connected with Hindu marriages and funeral obsequies (*srádddhas*). They are generally performed by the family priest, whose functions at a marriage are to accompany the friends of the bridegroom or the bride in their search for the one or the other; to examine the bridegroom's horoscope; to fix an auspicious day for the ceremony; to officiate at the *briddhi* or preparatory ceremony performed by the fathers of the bridegroom and of the bride. To marry sons and bestow daughters in marriage are reckoned religious duties by the Hindus, and they consider it necessary to invoke the spirit of their ancestors on the occasion. The other functions of the officiating priest are to dictate to the bride and bridegroom the oaths by which they bind themselves as man and wife for ever; to explain to them the duties enjoined by the *sástras* or sacred law, and to invoke and worship the gods who are supposed to preside over marriages. Bráhmans who are not the priests of the contracting families dine at the houses of the parties on the occasion of

the ceremony, and receive presents of less or greater value according to their rank or supposed superior learning.

But it is on the occasion of funeral obsequies (*sráddhas*) that the Bráhmans play the most important part. Four classes of Bráhmans take part in this ceremony — namely, the family priest, a number of ordinary Bráhmans, some Pandits or expounders of Bráhmanical law, and Reobhát or begging Bráhmans, who are also genealogists and minstrels. The last-named two classes of Bráhmans are only called to the *sráddha* of rich men; but the family priest, and at least twelve ordinary Bráhmans, are required at every such ceremony. The family priest generally draws up the estimate of expenditure, and often purchases the necessary things himself. Sometimes, if the person performing the *sráddha* is a poor man, the priest supplies the requisite articles, such as cloth, brass plates, &c., from his own stock at low prices; and as they all subsequently return to him, he makes a good profit by the obsequies. The principal duty of the priest is to dictate to the performer of the *sráddha* the sacred formulas (*mantras*) which he has to repeat, and in directing the presents of the rice, clothes, cows, &c, which he has to make for the salvation of his deceased relative. Ordinary Bráhmans are invited to dine, and are rewarded with small money presents in return for their company. It is the duty of one of the Pandits present to recite a chapter from the Mahábhárata, the others being simply invited for their learning, and rewarded according to their merits. The Reobháts or mendicant Bráhmans are generally dismissed with small presents.

KULINISM.—The following is a description of the introduction of Kulinism into Bengal, slightly abbreviated from an account furnished to me by a native gentleman who holds the post of Assistant to the Commissioner of the Division:—In the eleventh century, Adisur, King of Bengal, finding the Bráhmans of the country unable to officiate at certain ceremonies which his wife wished to be performed, sent to the King of Kanauj in Oudh for some learned Bráhmans; and the following five Bráhmans of different families were despatched in accordance with his request—namely, Daksha, of the Kasyap family; Chhándar, of the Bátsya family; Srísharsha, of the Bharadwáj family; Bed Garbha, of the Sábarna family; and Bhatta Náráyan, of the Sándilya family. Some accounts state that these immigrant Bráhmans first settled in Bikrampur near Dacca, and that their descendants emigrated to other Districts; while others assert that

they originally settled in Nadiyá, and emigrated thence to Bikrampur and elsewhere. In the twelfth century King Ballál Sen, a descendant of Adisur, found society in such a state of confusion that he set about reforming it, and divided the Bráhmans, Baidyas, Káyasths, and pure Súdras into different classes. It does not appear that the Kshattriyas and Vaisyas then existed in Bengal at all. The descendants of the Kanauj Bráhmans were first divided into two classes—Rárhi and Bárendra—so called from the locality in which they resided. The Rárhi Bráhmans, or those living in the country bounded on the north and east by the rivers Bhágirathí and Ganges, numbered fifty-nine families, of whom twenty-two were made Kulins, and the remaining seventeen Srotriyas. The Bárendras, who lived in the part bounded to the south and west by the Ganges and Mahánandá, numbered seventeen families, of whom nine were made Kulins and eight Srotriyas. These are the Dacca Bráhmans.

Their nine Kulin families were (1) Maitra, (2) Bhim, (3) Rúdra, (4) Sanjámaní, (5) Láhurí, (6) Bhádurí, (7) Sádhu, (8) Bhadrá, and (9) Puktipúraka. The Srotriyas or non-Kulin families were the following:—(1) Karanjá, (2) Nandanábásí, (3) Bhattasanish, (4) Láhurí, (5) Champatí, (6) Athuthí, (7) Jhampatí, and (8) Kámdebatá. The Vaidiks, or original Bráhmans of Bengal, either refused to accept the classification of Ballál Sen, or were thought unworthy of it. Kulinism, however, is not confined to Bráhmans. Three families of Baidyas, viz., Sen, Dás, and Gupta, belonging to the Dhannantari, Madhukulya, and Kásyap septs respectively, were made into Kulins. Among the Káyasths, the families of Basu, Guha, and Mitra were made Kulins; those of Datta, Dás, Nág and Náhá, were made Mauliks or non-Kulins, while 64 other Káyasth families belong to the lowest order, and form the despised castes. The system of Kulinism thus extended through all classes of society, but what is now commonly known as Kulinism is that practised among the Bráhmans.

About the end of the twelfth century Lakshman Sen, the last independent Hindu King of Bengal, held an inquiry (*samikarn*) into the social orders instituted by Ballál Sen, for the purpose of making such changes as were found necessary. Among the Rárhi Bráhmans eight out of the twenty-two Kulin classes or families stood the test, and were called Mukhya Kulins, or those steadfast in principle; the remaining fourteen were made Gauna Kulins, or those who have deviated from the prescribed right path. The Mukhya or pure Kulin families were the following:—(1) Mukharji (Mukhopádhyáya), (2)

Bánarji (Bandopádhyáya), (3) Gánguli (Gangopádhyáya), (4) Chát-tarji (Chattopádhyáya), (5) Kájilál, (6) Ghoshál, (7) Patidanda, and (8) Kundigrám. Difficulties regarding marriages soon sprung up, and the status of the Kulins was again remodelled by Debí Sinh, a distinguished *ghatak* (marriage registrar), and he further classified the Rárhi Kulins into thirty-two *mels* or families. Those Kulins who had married their daughters to Srotriyas or non-Kulins, were degraded and called Bansaj; while those who married the daughters of these lapsed Bansaj Bráhmans were ranked a step higher, and called Bhanga (literally broken). A Kulin, however, may marry a girl belonging to the upper class of Srotriyas without incurring any loss of caste. By marrying into a family of lower class Srotriyas, or a Bansaj family, he loses a certain amount of respect, but still retains his Kulinism. His children, however, occupy a much lower rank; the degree of social respect in which his descendants are held decreases each generation, and the children of the fourth or fifth generation lose their Kulinism altogether, and become Bhanga or broken. Kulin bridegrooms are in much request by the parents of marriageable daughters, who give large dowers for the honour of such an alliance. Many Kulin Bráhmans make marriage an occupation, and go about the country seeking for a Bansaj or Bhanga father with a marriageable daughter, and who is willing to pay high for the honour of obtaining a Kulin bridegroom. A Kulin receives a sum of about £200 with his first wife; for the second and subsequent wives he gets less, the amount decreasing in proportion to the number of previous marriages he has made. There is no limit to the number of wives a Kulin may have. The Deputy-Collector reported to me in 1871 that there was then in Bikrampur a man of this class with upwards of a hundred wives, while his three sons had fifty, thirty-five, and thirty respectively. Those Kulins who make marriage a profession do not maintain their wives, but leave them and their children to be provided for by the respective fathers-in-law. They are, however, bound to provide dowers for their female children. The sons are raised to the father's rank, the daughters take that of the mother, and a portion is required to get them eligibly married. Few Kulins, however, have the means of endowing their daughters, and the consequence is that a large proportion of the female children of Kulins by Bansaj wives remain unmarried.

VAISHNAVISM, in its original shape, as inculcated by the reformer Chaitanya, makes but few converts in this part of the country at the

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present time. Loose women, driven out of the village society, or idle men not choosing to adopt any regular occupation, take the initiatory rite (*bhek*) of Vaishnavism, and turn religious mendicants, begging from door to door, and living together in religious houses or monasteries, called *Akrás*. There is another form, however, in which Chaitanyaism makes a large number of converts. Men of a vehement religious enthusiasm occasionally relinquish their regular occupations, and itinerate as preachers of the worship of Hari (the name for Krishna, or the One God as first preached by Chaitanya), by means of *sankirttan* (the singing of hymns). Such missionaries gather a number of followers around them, who look upon them as inspired beings, call them by the sacred name of Hari, and worship them. All these Haris preach faith as the only efficacious remedy for diseases, and generally give dust or the leaves of any vegetable that may chance to be at hand to the people who flock to them, directing them to use these things in the name of Hari as medicines. They prescribe bathing three times a day in the name of Hari as a specific for all maladies. Such preachers have sometimes immense numbers of followers, nearly all from the ignorant or lower classes of society, but they never preach their own worship, nor do they themselves assume the name of Hari. They do not advocate any kind of idol-worship, nor in fact any other kind of religious observance, except singing hymns in the name of Hari or Krishna. Although they do many things in contravention to the rules of caste, they avoid giving offence to the orthodox Hindus, and refrain from preaching against caste or idol-worship of any kind. At the present time, one of these preachers, who belongs to Rájnagar in Bikrampur Fiscal Division recently transferred to Bákarganj District, is said to have not less than from fifty to sixty thousand followers, many of whom come from Tipperah, Maimansinh, Pabná, and other Districts. He is accompanied by large crowds wherever he goes. An *Akrá* or Vaishnav religious house is distinguishable from ordinary dwellings by the following peculiarities:—It invariably contains a large courtyard, on the northern side of which the *Thákurghar* is situated, and which is used for the ceremony of singing hymns, and for holding religious feasts (*mahotsab*). The houses are generally small thatched or masonry rooms, arranged in groups on three sides of the yard, and kept scrupulously neat; cleanliness being considered a part of the religion. In all *Akrás* is an elevated spot planted with Tulsí trees, the emblem of Vishnu; and on this

is a temple inhabited by the governor and religious preceptor (*Goswámí*) of the little community. There are two classes of Vaishnavs. Merchants and traders, and families belonging to the higher or respectable castes, form the first section. These all follow regular occupations, and live in every way like other Hindus, with whom they often connect themselves by marriage, the only difference being that they do not join in the worship of Kálí and other idols. The other class of Vaishnavs follow no calling, are excluded from the regular classes of Hindu society, live in communities in *Akrás*, and subsist by begging. Of this class, the number of females is much greater than that of the males. In the higher classes of Hindus, where the joint-family system obtains, a friendless person in his old age can find shelter with his distant relatives. This is not so among the lower and poorer orders; and as women are more helpless than men, they more frequently become Vaishnavs, and take to the alms-bag. Owing to this disparity in the number of the sexes, a large proportion of the women have to remain single. The men often join the fraternity for the sake of concubinage. A man happens to fall in love with a widow or with a woman of a different caste. As a consequence they are both persecuted by society, and become Vaishnavs, when they can marry without molestation. The marriage ceremony is very simple; the man and woman exchange garlands, make a small present in money to the *goswámí*, or spiritual guide, and a feast to the neighbouring Vaishnavs according to their means. It is a strange statement, but it is universally alleged that married Vaishnavs seldom have any children. On the death of a member of the fraternity, his body is thrown in the river, an earthern jug filled with sand being tied to the neck. If he leaves any money or has Vaishnav relatives living, a grand feast or *mahotsab* is given for his benefit in the other world. The Vaishnavs recognise no distinction of caste, but latterly it seems that caste is beginning to make itself felt, as those of a higher caste will not partake of food cooked by one of a lower. At a religious feast, however, all classes sit in a row in an open place, and partake together of the food cooked by the Bráhman religious preceptor. The *goswámí* is not only the spiritual guide, but also in a manner the governor of the community. When a member of the fraternity does anything forbidden in their religion, he is fined by the *goswámí*, and excommunicated if the mulct be refused.

The Census Return gives the number of caste-rejecting Vaishnavs in Dacca District at 11,886.

THE BRÁHMA SAMÁJ was established in Dacca in 1846, and has steadily increased in numbers and influence. Up to 1857 its meetings were held in houses rented for the purpose, and from that time to 1869, in the house of a native gentleman, a Deputy-Magistrate of the District and a leading member of the Samáj. In 1869 a large hall was built by public contributions from the Bráhmas of Eastern Bengal, and services are held in it every Sunday evening, and occasionally at other times; three hundred members generally attending. There are about a hundred regular subscribers to the Samáj, who pay from six shillings to five pounds per annum, to meet current expenses, and a thousand ordinary members, or sympathisers, comprising nearly all the English-speaking Hindus of Dacca. The members generally belong to the most respectable families, such as Bráhmans, Baidyas, Káyasths, &c. The Collector states that he has come across but one man of the cultivating class who belonged to the sect, and he became an inmate of the Lunatic Asylum. The Bráhma Samáj is essentially a town sect; and the Collector believes that many students who are, if anything, Bráhmas when at College, become good Hindus when they return to their country homes.

THE MUHAMMADAN COMMUNITY are almost all Shaikhs; the Sayyids, Mughuls, and Pathán̈s being few in number. The latter were, however, at one time numerous in the District, and a few of their descendants are still to be met with at the village of Pathántalí near Dhámrái. For a considerable period Dacca was the capital of Bengal under the Muhammadan rule, and up to the time when the British assumed the administration of the country the District was governed by Deputies on behalf of the Musalmán King of Bengal. The last Deputy or Nawáb of the old ruling family died in 1843, but the Nizámat or nominal viceroyalty was taken out of the hands of the Dacca Nawábs on the death of Nasrat Jang in 1822. During the Muhammadan supremacy, large numbers of the inhabitants of the District either willingly or through coercion were converted to Islám. The Musalmán religion is not now an actively proselytising one in Dacca District, although it from time to time receives small additions from the Hindu and Vaishnav communities. Several *pírs* or Muhammadan holy men live in the vicinity of the town. *Fakírs* or religious beggars are numerous in the city, and subsist on the bounty of the wealthy Musalmán inhabitants. These sturdy vagabonds assemble

in great force during the festivals of the Muharram and the Ramzán. The following description of the celebration of the Muharram is taken from Taylor's "Topography of Dacca," and was written during the lifetime of the last Nawáb:—"The Muharram is celebrated with much pomp at the Husainí Dalán, an extensive building capable of containing a great concourse of people, and supported from funds originally granted by the Nawábs of Dacca, now disbursed through the Collector. During the *ashurá*, or ten days' fast, its interior is decorated with artificial flowers, transparencies, and ostrich eggs; the walls above the effigies of Hasan and Husain are draped with black cloth; a fountain plays in the centre, and the whole is lighted up at night with a profusion of coloured lamps and candles. The funeral dirges and eulogiums are recited by a trained band of singers, who keep up the nocturnal vigils throughout the fast. On the seventh day, the *panjah*, or representation of an open hand, mounted on a pole adorned with tinsel and flowers, is paraded through the streets with music; and on the tenth or last day of the fast, the *táziá* or effigies of the two martyrs are conveyed with great pomp to a tank in the vicinity of the town, where they are stripped of their ornaments and thrown into the water." At the present day, however, this festival is solemnised with much less pomp.

The Mughuls of the District are the remains of the former dominant race, and are all Shiahs. They were formerly a rich and powerful class, but are now generally poor, and gradually dwindling away. The Collector reports that their numbers in Dacca District do not exceed five hundred. The Shiahs and Sunís are now at peace with each other; but in 1869, at one of their religious ceremonies, they very nearly came to an open fight.

A new sect of Muhammadans, the Faráizís, arose about forty-four years ago, its founder being a native of Faridpur District. It spread with extraordinary rapidity throughout Eastern Bengal, and the followers of this sect now form a considerable proportion of the Muhammadan population of the town and District of Dacca. They have the character of being stricter in their morals than other Musalmáns, but are intolerant and bigoted. The majority of them are not actively fanatical, and as a rule they are fairly well off, although not rich. Those who are engaged in trade principally deal in rice, hides, and jute. For a fuller account, see my "Statistical Account of Faridpur District," and my "Indian Mussalmans." Although the Muhammadans form the largest section of the population, numbering

1,050,131, against 793,789 Hindus, they are numerically weaker in the towns, and do not evince any tendency towards city life. Thus, in the six towns returned in the Census Report as having a population above five thousand, there were only 51,653 Musalmáns to 57,329 Hindus. In Náráinganj and Narishá, the Muhammadans exceeded the Hindus; in the city of Dacca the numbers were nearly equal, the balance being slightly in favour of the Hindus.

NATIVE CHRISTIANS.—A considerable population of native Christians exists in Dacca, chiefly of the Roman Catholic persuasion. The two principal stations of this community are at Bándurá and Hasanábád on the Hilsámárí, and at Nágarí and some surrounding villages on the banks of the Lakhmiá river. Formerly they were all under the control of the Archbishop of Goa, but owing to differences between him and the Church of Rome, a separate Mission was sent out by the Propaganda in 1834. This Mission has churches at Dacca and Bándurá, and the Collector reported in 1871 that it numbered about five thousand members. Of these, the greater number are either cultivators, or go into service as cooks and ayahs. On the whole, they are well-to-do, and some spend considerable sums on their marriages. The Goa Roman Catholics are possessed of considerable property both at Nágarí and at Hasanábád. The Collector has not been able to ascertain the exact number of the community, but estimates it to amount to about twelve thousand in round figures. The Census Returns, however, give a much smaller total. The total Christian population of the District was ascertained in 1872 to amount to 7844 souls; inclusive of 193 European Christians, 2 Americans or West Indians, 121 Armenians; total non-native Christians, 316. There are also 5627 Eurasians, principally descendants of the early Portuguese settlers, but at the present day, from constant intermarriages with the people of the country, they are hardly distinguishable from the native population in appearance, language, or dress. The number of pure native Christians is returned at 1901, making a total Christian population, as above stated, of 7844 souls. The Christians of the Goa Church are on the whole well-to-do, and rank as substantial husbandmen. A good many of them also hold landed property. In connection with this Mission there was formerly a Church at Tezpur near Dacca, besides the present edifice in Dacca town. The members attached to the Dacca Church number about a hundred and sixty, and are chiefly employed as cultivators, cooks, and arti-

ficers; some of them have landed property. There is also a Baptist Christian Mission, with stations at Dacca and Dayápur on the Burígangá, and at Munshíganj on the south bank of the Dhaleswarí, near its junction with the Meghná. The total number of the community is returned at about a hundred. The Mission converts at Dayápur are stated to be nearly all cultivators; those at Munshíganj, fishermen and weavers; those in the town of Dacca follow various occupations. Converts to Christianity come entirely from the rural population, while the Bráhma Samáj followers are chiefly residents of the town. The six towns given in the Census Report as containing a population above five thousand souls contain a total Christian population of only 533. Of these, 479 reside in Dacca City, and consist principally of the European and East Indian Government officials and residents. The Indo-Portuguese Christians have already been alluded to on a previous page.

TOWN POPULATION.—Before describing the towns and principal places in the District separately, it may be as well to exhibit the total town population. The Census Returns only give six towns in the whole District as containing a population of upwards of five thousand souls. These are Dacca, Náráinganj, Mánikganj, Sholaghar, Hásárá, and Narishá. They contain a total population of 109,542, as exhibited in the following table, extracted from Mr C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation for Dacca :—

RETURN OF TOWNS CONTAINING MORE THAN FIVE THOUSAND INHABITANTS IN THE DISTRICT OF DACCA.

NAMES OF TOWNS.	HINDUS.	MUHAMMADANS.	CHRISTIANS.	OTHERS.	TOTAL.	Gross Municipal income.	Gross Municipal expenditure.	Rate of Municipal taxation per head.
						RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Dacca,...	34,433	34,275	479	25	69,212	50,214 0 0	50,000 0 0	0 11 7
Manikganj,.....	6,381	5,159	...	2	11,542	3,631 0 0	3 000 0 0	0 5 0
Náráinganj, ...	5,200	5,694	17	...	10,911	493 0 0	4,000 0 0	0 6 7
Sholaghar, ...	4,478	2,047	...	...	6,525	*Nil.*	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
Hásárá, ...	4,807	900	...	...	5,707	*Nil.*	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
Narishá, ...	2,030	3,578	37	...	5,645	*Nil.*	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
	57,329	51,653	533	27	109,542	58,338 0 0	57,000 0 0	*Av.* 0 10 6

The Collector in 1871 returned the following thirty-two towns as containing an estimated population of 2000 souls and upwards. The latitudes and longitudes have been furnished by the Surveyor-General.

(1.) Dacca, situated on the north bank of the Burígangá, in 23° 43′ 20″ north latitude, and 90° 26′ 10″ east longitude. The estimated population of the city in 1867, as given by Mr Clay in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," was. 51,636. In 1872, it was ascertained by the Census to amount to 69,212. A further account of the city, with fuller details as to population, will be given on a subsequent page.

(2.) Náráinganj, situated on the west bank of the Lakhmiá river, in latitude 23° 37′ 5″, and longitude 90° 32′ 10″. In 1838 the population of the town was estimated by Dr Taylor at 6252; in 1867 it contained an estimated population of 9400 souls, inclusive of Madanganj, which is situated on the opposite side of the river, but which in reality forms a part of Náráinganj. Its population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, amounted to 10,911 souls. This town will also be again mentioned on a subsequent page.

(3.) Mánikganj, situated in latitude 23° 52′ 45″, and longitude 90° 4′ 15″, is an extensive town, containing a population in 1872, according to the Census Returns, of 11,542 souls.

(4.) Kápásiá, situated in latitude 24° 6′ 15″, and longitude 90° 36′ 40″; estimated population in 1871, 3856 souls.

(5.) Nayán Bázár, situated in latitude 24° 16′ 30″, and longitude 90° 40′ 30″; estimated population in 1871, 2144 souls.

(6.) Rájábárí Jai Náráyanpur, situated in latitude 24° 6′ 0″, and longitude 90° 32′ 23″; estimated population in 1871, 2120 souls.

(7.) Kalákapá, situated in latitude 23° 39′ 23″, and longitude 90° 10′ 45″; estimated population in 1871, 2051 souls.

(8.) Gobindpur, situated in latitude 23° 39′ 30″, and longitude 90° 10′ 8″; estimated population in 1871, 2107 souls.

(9.) Gálimpur, situated in latitude 23° 38′ 18″, and longitude 90° 14′ 7″; estimated population in 1871, 2819 souls.

(10.) Aglá Chaukíghátá, situated in latitude 23° 38′ 45″, and longitude 90° 14′ 8″; estimated population in 1871, 4010 souls.

(11.) Narishá, situated in latitude 23° 33′ 30″, and longitude 90° 10′ 37″; estimated population in 1871, 4923; ascertained population in 1872, 5645 souls.

(12.) Jaipárá, situated in latitude 23° 37′ 0″, and longitude 90° 9′ 30″; estimated population in 1871, 2857 souls.

(13.) Máthait, latitude and longitude not ascertained; estimated population in 1871, 2949 souls.

(14.) Káolipára, situated in latitude 23° 27′ 40″, and longitude 90° 15′ 30″; estimated population in 1871, 2713 souls.

(15.) Siddhiganj, situated in latitude 23° 40′ 15″, and longitude 90° 33′ 30″; estimated population in 1871, 2311 souls.

(16.) Hásárá, situated in latitude 23° 35′ 13″, and longitude 90° 20′ 58″; estimated population in 1871, 2870; ascertained population in 1872, 5707 souls.

(17.) Sholaghar, situated in latitude 23° 33′ 20″, and longitude 90° 20′ 10″; estimated population in 1871, 2863 souls; ascertained population in 1872, 6525 souls.

(18.) Rám Krishnapur, situated in latitude 23° 43′ 23″, and longitude 89° 57′ 55″; estimated population in 1871, 2100 souls.

(19.) Sutálari, situated in latitude 23° 41′ 40″, and longitude 90° 0′ 45″; estimated population in 1871, 2450 souls.

(20.) Nayábári, situated in latitude 23° 39′ 10″, and longitude 90° 3′ 30″; estimated population in 1871, 3150 souls.

(21.) Sonárang, situated in latitude 23° 31′ 50″, and longitude 90° 29′ 45″; estimated population in 1871, 2012 souls.

(22.) Sábhár, situated in latitude 23° 50′ 55″, and longitude 90° 17′ 10″; estimated population in 1871, 2350 souls.

(23.) Dhámrái, situated in latitude 23° 54′ 55″, and longitude 90° 14′ 55″; estimated population in 1871, 5136 souls.

(24.) Simliá, situated in latitude 23° 49′ 20″, and longitude 89° 55′ 15″; estimated population in 1871, 2065 souls.

(25.) Rájnagar, recently transferred to Bákarganj, situated in latitude 23° 18′ 15″, and longitude 90° 22′ 43″; estimated population in 1871, 6365 souls.

(26.) Larikul, recently transferred to Bákarganj, situated in latitude 23° 17′ 55″, and longitude 90° 25′ 15″; estimated population in 1871, 2228 souls.

(27.) Siddhá, recently transferred to Bákarganj, situated in latitude 23° 9′ 52″, and longitude 90° 29′ 0″, estimated population in 1871, 2335 souls.

(28.) Chárpaiátulí, latitude and longitude not ascertained; estimated population in 1871, 2050 souls.

(29.) Panch Char, recently transferred to Bákarganj, situated in latitude 23° 24′ 0″, and longitude 90° 11′ 30″; estimated population in 1871, 3050 souls.

(30.) Binodpur, recently transferred to Bákarganj, situated in lati-

tude 23° 13′ 22″, and longitude 90° 19′ 8″; estimated population in 1871, 5850 souls.

(31.) Umedpur, latitude and longitude not ascertained; estimated population in 1871, 2500 souls.

(32.) Gopínáthpur, situated in latitude 23° 44′ 45″, and longitude 89° 50′ 18″; estimated population in 1871, 2500 souls.

The Census of 1872, however, disclosed a considerably larger town population, and returned sixty-nine villages and towns as containing upwards of two thousand inhabitants. The District Census Report thus classifies the villages and towns:—There are 2438 small villages each containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1539 villages or small towns of from two to five hundred; 734 from five hundred to a thousand; 236 from one to two thousand; 48 from two to three thousand; 12 from three to four thousand; 2 from four to five thousand; 2 from five to six thousand; 2 from six to ten thousand; 2 from ten to fifteen thousand; and one with upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. The foregoing gives seven towns or villages as containing upwards of five thousand inhabitants, whereas the Census Return only separately enumerates six. The explanation is, that one of the places returned as containing upwards of five thousand inhabitants does not consist of a single town, but is a collection of villages (*mauzás*) grouped together, and consequently was not entered by the Census Report of 1872 in the list of towns.

The Collector does not think that there is any tendency on the part of the people to gather into towns or seats of commerce and industry. It is only of late years, since the great extension in the trade in jute and country produce, that Dacca City has shown signs of recovery from the ruin which had befallen its cotton manufactures and fabrics. The population of the town is now slowly increasing, as is also that of Náráinganj. The Collector reports that ample spare land still exists in the District, and that at the present day no important branch of manufacturing industry attracts people to the towns. In 1871, the Magistrate had no means of ascertaining the exact proportion of the agricultural and non-agricultural communities, but he was of opinion that at least eight-tenths of the total population of the District derive their entire livelihood from the soil. It must also, however, be borne in mind, that even among the trading class, the greater portion also cultivate a little land, although the foregoing estimate includes them among the non-agriculturists.

The Census Report divides the adult male population of the District into 300,704 agriculturists, and 248,738 non-agriculturists. The number of non-agriculturists is much too high, and is probably accounted for by the same reason as that given in the Collector's former estimate, namely, that all people who do not derive their sole means of livelihood from the land are entered as non-agriculturists.

DACCA CITY. — The principal town and Civil Station of the District, as well as the Headquarters of the Commissioner of the Division, is the city of Dacca, situated on the north bank of the Burígangá river, in north latitude 23° 43′ 20″, and east longitude 90° 26′ 10″, about eight miles above the confluence of the Burígangá with the Dhaleswarí river. The following brief description of the city is condensed from Taylor's "Topography of Dacca" (pp. 86-98). The city is bounded on the east by a low alluvial plain which extends to the Lakhmiá river, and on the north and north-west by a tract of jungle interspersed with Musalmán cemeteries and deserted gardens, mosques and houses now in ruins. During the rains, the lower levels of this portion of the environs are inundated to a depth of many feet, and the town is completely insulated by a labyrinth of creeks and morasses that join the Burígangá and Lakhmiá. The town itself is built on the bank of the river, along which its streets, bázárs, and lanes extend to a distance of four miles in length, and about a mile and a quarter in breadth. It is intersected in its interior by a branch of the Dolái Creek. The *Chauk*, or market-place, lies at the west end of the town, and near the river bank. It is a square of pretty large dimensions, surrounded by mosques and shops. The open space in which the bázár is held is confined within a low wall, with a carriage road round it. The numerous streets which intersect the town are extremely narrow and crooked, and only a few are wide enough for wheeled conveyances. The style of architecture is the same as that of other towns in Bengal. The houses facing the streets are generally very narrow, and from one to four stories in height. In parts of the city inhabited by particular castes, such as the weavers' and shell-cutters' bázárs, where building ground lets at a high rent, many of the four-storied houses have a frontage of only eight or ten feet, while the side walls, unperforated either by doors or windows, run back to a distance of twenty yards. The extremities of these buildings are roofed in; the middle

part of the dwelling is left open, and constitutes a small court. The two principal streets of the city cross each other at right angles. One extends from the Lál-bágh palace to the Dolái Creek, and is upwards of two miles in length; it runs at a little distance from, and nearly parallel to, the river, and has branch streets leading to the *ghâts* or landing-places. The other street leads to the cantonments and the suburbs on the north of the town; it is about a mile and a quarter in length, and considerably wider and more regularly built than the former one. At the junction of these streets there is a small open space, which is laid out in the form of a square with a garden in its centre; and in the vicinity of this square, and along the banks of the river for a distance of about half a mile, are situated the English Factory, St Thomas's Church, and most of the houses of the English residents. These houses are generally large and well built, and give the town a rather imposing appearance when viewed from the south. In the Armenian and Greek quarters of the town there are also several large brick-built houses, but most of them are falling into ruin.

Of the old fort of Dacca, erected by the Nawáb Islám Khán, in the reign of the Emperor Jahángír, no vestiges remain, and the jail is built on a portion of its site. The principal public buildings, erected by subsequent Governors, and now in ruins, are the Katrá and the Lál-bágh. The former was built by direction of Sultán Muhammad Shujá in 1645, about half-a-mile to the eastward of the Lál-bágh, in front of the *chauk* or market-place, and fills up a considerable portion of the space between that square and the river. It presented on the side next to the Burígangá an extensive front, having a lofty central gateway, flanked by smaller entrances and by two octagonal towers, which rose to some height above the body of the building. The palace of the Lál-bágh was commenced by Sultán Muhammad Azím, the third son of the Emperor Aurangzeb, and was left by him in an unfinished state to his successor in the government. It was built in a quadrangular form, and enclosed a considerable extent of ground. It originally stood close to the Burígangá, but there is now an intervening space between it and the river covered with huts and trees. The walls on the western side, and the terrace and battlement towards the river, are of a considerable height, and present a commanding aspect from the water. These outworks, with a few of its gateways, the audience hall, and the baths, are the only parts of the building that survived in 1839. Since then their

dilapidation has made rapid strides; but even in ruin they still show the extensive and magnificent scale on which this princely residence was originally designed. Shaistá Khán, the successor of Sultán Muhammad Azím, appears never to have completed the structure. When Tavernier visited Dacca, about the year 1666, the Nawáb was residing in a temporary wooden building in its court. He afterwards erected within its walls a mausoleum to the memory of his daughter, the wife of Sultán Muhammad Azím. The inner apartment of this structure, containing the tomb, is built of marble and *Chanár* stone, surmounted with a fine dome; the passage surrounding it being divided into compartments embellished with mosaics. Most of its decorations, however, together with the aqueducts that supplied its fountains, have long since been destroyed. The English Factory appears to have been built about 1666. The central part of the building was used as a court for some time, but on its falling into a state of ruin it was pulled down about 1829 or 1830, and the only portion of the building that remained in 1839 was the outward wall. The French Factory, an extensive building on the bank of the river, was repaired and converted into a dwelling-house, and in 1839, when Dr Taylor wrote his book, was occupied by a native gentleman. Of the Dutch Factory there are no traces existing except the walled terrace on which it stood. The French and Dutch Factories were taken possession of by the English in the years 1778 and 1781 respectively.

The town of Dacca first sprung into political importance between 1608 and 1612. Prior to that time the eastern capital of the Mughul Provincial Administration was Sonárgáon. But in order to check the depredations of the Maghs and the rebellions of the Afghans, it was found necessary to remove the seat of government of Bengal from Rájmahal to Dacca, where the Nawáb Islám Khán erected a fort, increased the strength of the fleet and artillery which had been established by the Emperor Akbar, and changed the name of the town to Jahángírnagar or Jahángírábád. During the time of the Mughul government, the city was under the jurisdiction of a Magistrate (*Faujdár*) and six *ámíns*. The police consisted of these officers with eighty peons, fifty horsemen, and fifty armed guards. All had residences assigned to them, and were paid chiefly by grants of land. Besides the Civil and Criminal Courts, there was also an officer called Ittisáb, who exercised a good deal of authority.

He had the superintendence of weights and measures, settled disputes, and imposed fines and corporal punishment on offenders. The other officers, besides the Nawáb and Finance Minister, whose jurisdiction extended beyond the city, were the Kází, Kánúngo, and Wakáianigár. The duty of the latter officer was to report daily to the Emperor all that occurred in the public departments, and to superintend the transmission of despatches and official correspondence. The public establishments consisted of the fleet (*náoárá*), comprising seven hundred war-boats and a number of State barges, the artillery, and the Mint. The falling off of the Dacca trade took place as far back as 1801. Up to that year the annual advances made by the East India Company and private traders for Dacca muslins were estimated at over £250,000. In 1807 the Company's investments had fallen to £59,590, and the private trade to £56,020. In 1813 the private trade did not exceed £20,590 in value, and that of the Company was scarcely more considerable. Four years later the English Commercial Residency was altogether discontinued. At the present day the contracted limits of the town, its reduced and impoverished population, the ruined and abandoned habitations that are to be seen in every direction, all indicate a period of prosperity and affluence long passed away. Dr Taylor states that in 1800 the population of the city was 200,000; in 1823, Bishop Heber estimated it to contain 90,000 houses and 300,000 inhabitants. This must have been a very excessive estimate, as in 1814 the police-tax was only levied on 21,361 houses, and in 1830 a census of the town disclosed a population of 66,989, and 10,708 houses. The city still continued to decline, till the trade in jute and country produce began to make up for the loss of its cotton manufactures. In 1867, according to the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," the population was estimated at 51,636 only; in 1872 it was ascertained to amount to 69,212. The Census Report gives the following details of the population of the city:—Hindus, males 20,102, females 14,331; total 34,433. Muhammadans, males 17,022, females 17,253; total 34,275. Christians, males 258, females 221; total 479. Persons of other religions, males 13, females 12; total 25. Grand total of all denominations, males 37,395, females 31,817; total 69,212. The rate of municipal taxation is 1s. 5¼d. per head of the population.

NÁRÁINGANJ is, after Dacca city, the town of next importance in

the District. It is situated on the western bank of the Lakhmiá river, at its confluence with the Dhaleswarí, and with its bázárs extends for about three miles along the river. The town also includes Madanganj, a little lower down on the opposite side of the river. It is in reality a portion of the Náráinganj mart, and was established by the merchants of that place, who were pressed for space in the town. In the vicinity of the town are several forts, built by Mír Jumlá, and almost opposite stands the Kadam-Rasúl, a place of some antiquity, and in great repute among pious Musalmáns in this part of the country. A stone with the impression of the Prophet's foot upon it is kept in a small mosque surrounded by the huts of religious mendicants, who live on charity bestowed by pilgrims who come to worship this relic. Náráinganj is distant from Dacca about nine miles by land, and about sixteen or eighteen miles by water. It possesses steam communication with Calcutta, Assam, Silhet, and Káchár, and is a great mart for country produce, as also a depot for boats and boatmen engaged in the inland trade. Within the last fourteen years the trade in country produce has considerably increased, in spite of the rivalry of the great Sirájganj mart on the banks of the Jamuná in Pabná District. Jute is largely imported from Tipperah and Maimansinh, packed at Náráinganj and sent to Calcutta. In 1838 the population amounted to 6252; in 1871 it contained about 6400, and the town of Madanganj, on the opposite side of the river, about 3000 souls. The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 10,911, made up as follows:—Hindus, males 3685, females 1515; total 5200. Muhammadans, males 3405, females 2289; total 5694. Christians, males 11, females 6; total 17. Grand total of all denominations, males 7101, females 3810; total 10,911. Rate of municipal taxation, 9$\frac{7}{8}$d. per head of the population. Lat. 23° 37′ 5″ N.; long. 90° 32′ 10″ E.

MÁNIKGANJ, the headquarters of the subdivision of the same name, is the next place of importance, and is situated on the west bank of the Dhaleswarí river, in latitude 23° 52′ 45″, and longitude 90° 4′ 15″. The bázár extends over an area of about two square miles. The only means of communication is by boat, except in the dry season, when a horse may be ridden across country. The chief articles of trade are mustard-oil and tobacco, imported from Rangpur and Kuch Behar, and sent to Náráinganj and Calcutta. I have not been able to obtain any previous estimates of the population, but in 1872 it was ascertained to amount to 11,542 souls, made up as

follows:—Hindus, males 3177, females 3204; total 6381. Muhammadans, males 2571, females 2588; total 5159. Christians, *nil.* Other denominations, males 2, females *nil.* Grand total, males 5750, females 5792, total 11,542. Rate of municipal taxation, 7½d. per head of the population.

MUNICIPALITIES.—There are three Municipalities in the District. In 1870 the receipts and expenditure of the Dacca Municipality were as follows:—revenue £5162, expenditure £5340. In 1872, the Census Return gives the gross Municipal income at £5021, 8s., and the gross expenditure at £5000; rate of Municipal taxation per head of the population, 1s. 5¼d. The District Municipal Improvement Act was introduced in Dacca on the 1st August 1864, and since then important reforms have been made in the sanitary condition of Dacca, and several works of public utility been carried out. At Náráinganj, the Municipal revenue amounted in 1870 to £35, 14s., and the expenditure to £25, 8s.; in 1872, the total Municipal income was returned at £449, 6s., and the expenditure at £400; rate of Municipal taxation, 9⅞d. per head of the population. At Mánikganj, the Municipal revenue amounted in 1870 to £377, 2s., and the expenditure to £333, 4s. In 1872, the total Municipal revenue was £363, 2s., and the expenditure £300; rate of Municipal taxation, 7½d. per head.

PLACES OF HISTORICAL INTEREST.—The following brief description of the remarkable places in Dacca is condensed from the account given in Dr Taylor's work.

BIKRAMPUR; celebrated as the ancient seat of government under the Hindu Kings of Bengal, from the reign of Vikramáditya up to the time of the overthrow of the dynasty by the Musalmáns. The place where the Hindu princes resided is still pointed out at Rámpál, a little to the west of Firinghi Bázár. The site of the palace of King Ballál Sen consists of a quadrangular mound of earth, covering an area of about three thousand square feet, and surrounded by a moat about two hundred feet wide. There are no traces of buildings within this enclosed space, but in its vicinity, and in the country for many miles around, mounds of bricks, and wall foundations at a great depth below the surface, are met with, and were formerly used as building materials for the construction of houses in the city. Near the site of Ballál Sen's palace there is a deep excavation called Agnikunda, where it is said the last Hindu Prince of Bikrampur and his family burned themselves on the approach of the Musalmáns. Tradition relates that the

Prince, when he went out to meet the invaders of his territory, carried with him a messenger pigeon, whose return to the palace was to be regarded by his family as an intimation of his defeat, and a signal to put themselves to death. It appears that the Prince gained the victory, but unfortunately, while stooping to drink from the river after the fatigues of the day, the bird escaped from his garment in which it was concealed, and flew to its destination. The Rájá hurried home, but arriving too late to avert the consequences of the unhappy accident, he cast himself upon the funeral pile, still smoking with the ashes of his family, and thus closed his dynasty. The large Rájnagar temple on the banks of the Ganges, in the Fiscal Division of the same name, is also an object of interest, and in 1870 was reported to me as in danger of being washed away by the river.

SONÁRGÁON, the ancient Muhammadan capital of the District, now called Painám, is situated about two miles inland from the Brahmaputra Creek, in a grove of areca, tamarind, mango, and other trees, which completely hide the village from view until within a few yards of it. In the dry season it is approached by narrow winding footpaths, but during the rains it is partially inundated, and is almost inaccessible except by small boats, or by elephant or on horseback. The village, which has a bad name for unhealthiness, consisted in 1839 of two narrow streets of straw huts, and some well-built brick houses of two and three stories high. Surrounding it is a deep muddy ditch, originally excavated as a moat. Upon an old bridge across the ditch are the remains of a gateway, which in former times was closed every night, and no person allowed either to enter or leave the place till the following morning. In the vicinity of the village are the ruins of several mosques and hamlets, probably residences of the early Musalmán Governors. Dr Hamilton, who visited the District some years before Dr Taylor wrote his work, was informed by the natives that the ancient Sonárgáon had been carried away by the river, and that it had stood on the opposite side of the Meghná. Dr Taylor believed this to be a mistake. He says that in the vicinity of Sonárgáon there had been no encroachment of the river, but, on the contrary, an accession of soil by the filling up of the Brahmaputra Creek, which was originally the main channel of that river. The city on the opposite side of the Meghná was not Sonárgáon, but Srípur, which stood in Bikrampur Fiscal Division, and was destroyed by the Kirtinásá river. Sonárgáon, although celebrated as a seat of

trade, and the Musalmán metropolis of Eastern Bengal, does not appear to have ever had any pretensions to architectural grandeur. Fitch, who visited the place in 1586, gives the following account of it:—"Sinnergan is a town six leagues from Serripur, where there is the best and finest cloth made in all India. The houses here, as they be in most parts of India, are very little, and covered with straw, and have a few mats round about the walls, and the door to keep out the tigers and the foxes. Many of the people are very rich. Here they will eat no flesh, nor kill no beast. They live on rice, milk, and fruits. They go with a little cloth before them, and all the rest of the body is naked." In 1839, when Dr Taylor wrote, the weaving of muslin was still the chief occupation of the inhabitants, and in this the village maintained the same reputation which it enjoyed in the time of Abul Fazl and Fitch. A great proportion of the weavers were Musalmáns, engaged in manufacturing the *jámdání* or flowered fabrics, a considerable quantity of which was annually exported to different parts of the country.

FIRINGHI BÁZÁR, situated upon a branch of the Ichhámatí, is noted as the place where the Portuguese first settled in the District during the governorship of Shaistá Khán. They were mostly persons who had deserted from the service of the Rájá of Arákán to that of Husain Beg, the Mughul general besieging Chittagong, which at that time (1663) belonged to Arákán. Firinghi Bázár was once a place of considerable size, but from the period of the decay of the Dacca trade it has dwindled down to a small village; in 1839 it still contained a few large brick houses.

IDRAKPUR, also situated on the Ichhámatí river, south of Firinghi Bázár, contained in 1839 the remains of a circular fort built by Mír Jumlá, one of the Governors of Bengal during the reign of Aurangzeb, and also several brick buildings and *ghâts*, where probably the river dues or customs of Bikrampur Fiscal Division were levied, within which it is situated.

BHÁWÁL, or NÁGARÍ, a village in the Fiscal Division of the same name, situated in latitude 23° 59′ 35″, and longitude 90° 27′ 50″. In 1839 it consisted of about five hundred houses, almost entirely inhabited by Christians of Portuguese descent. A Roman Catholic mission owned Bháwál and the surrounding villages, the whole constituting an estate of considerable extent and value.

SÁBHÁR, situated on the northern bank of the Burígangá, was the capital of the Bhuiyá Rájá Harischandra. In 1839, the only trace

that remained of his residence was a heap of bricks and earth overgrown with jungle.

DHÁMRÁI, situated on the Bansí river, near its junction with the Burígangá, and, as late as 1839, one of the principal manufacturing villages of the District. Ganakpárá, Ghori, and Gariápárá are also shown in Rennel's map of the last century as places of considerable size. Dr Taylor states that they were the fortified settlements of the Afgháns, who, after their defeat in the interior of Bengal by the Mughuls, retreated to this eastern part of the country. A few years before 1839 a part of the walls, with several lofty gateways and mosques, were to be seen, but they have been since completely swept away by the river. It is said that Islám Khán, when transferring the seat of government to this part of the country, selected Ganakpárá for its site; but finding the surrounding country was low, he dismantled the fort of its guns and made Dacca the metropolis. In the vicinity of Dhámrái, Dr Taylor states there was a village called Pathántalí, still inhabited by the descendants of the Afgháns.

AT DURDURIÁ, situated upon the banks of the Banar, about eight miles above the village of Ekdálá, are found the remains of a strong fort, and opposite to it the foundations of a town, both of which, it is said, were built and occupied by the Bhuiyá Rájás. Dr Taylor states that the fort is laid out in the shape of a crescent, bounded by the river. The outer wall is composed of red earth intermixed with clay, and in 1839 was twelve or fourteen feet high. It is upwards of two miles in circuit, and is surrounded by a moat about thirty feet broad, but now filled up with earth washed away from the wall and adjacent ground. At some distance within this rampart there are traces of a second defence of a similar construction; and further on are the remains of a brick-built wall, the extent and figure of which are distinctly marked out by a ridge of earth and loose bricks, and by the foundations of the wall. Like the outworks, it forms the segment of a circle surrounded by a ditch. This enclosure, or citadel, as it appears to have been, has three openings into it, and contains the sites of two buildings, which are somewhat elevated and stand close upon the banks of the river. The southern site consists of a circular mound of bricks, and appears to be the remains of a tower surrounded by a wall with four bastions, the foundations of which are still visible. The figure of the northern site is not so well defined;

it exhibits two square elevations, and beyond them the remains of a tank were visible. The fort is known among the natives by the name of the Ráni-bárí, and is said to have belonged to Rání Bhabání, the last of the line of Bhuiyás, who occupied it at the time of the Muhammadan invasion. Of the city on the opposite side of the river, the only vestiges existing in 1839 were mounds and loose bricks scattered over the surface of the plain. They covered a considerable extent of ground. About two miles inland there are two magnificent tanks, said to have been dug by the Bhuiyá Rájás, of great depth, and in all probability are supplied by springs. Several forts survive at Idrakpur, Hájíganj, Sonákándí, and Sábhár, all of which were constructed by the Muhammadans to resist the invasions and raids of the Maghs and Portuguese.

THE MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE has considerably improved within the last ten years, and particularly that of the cultivating classes. This is partly owing to the increased prices of produce, but is also very greatly due to the increase in the cultivation of more valuable crops. The trade of Eastern Bengal has received an enormous impetus by the introduction of jute and saf-flower, and by the extended cultivation of oil-seeds; and the Collector states that the benefits to the District are only just beginning. The only persons who do not share in the general increased prosperity of the District are those with fixed incomes, such as subordinate landlords (*tálukdárs*), for the rise of rent has been by no means proportionate to the rise in prices of food and wages; and Government servants and others who depend upon a regular fixed salary.

THE DRESS of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of (1) a *dhuti*, composed of a long piece of Manchester cloth, about fifteen feet long and three and a half feet broad; it is wound round the waist, and hangs down to the ankles; (2) a *chádar*, a muslin or cotton sheet about nine feet in length; (3) *pirán*, a coat newly introduced into fashion, made of long cloth; (4) *banát*, a piece of broad woollen cloth about nine feet in length, and worn as a shawl in winter only; (5) *gámchá*, a napkin or handkerchief; (6) *málá*, a necklace of wooden beads worn only by the Hindus; (7) *jutá*, shoes, generally of Dehli or local manufacture, but some of the young men wear shoes made in the English fashion; (8) *kharam*, wooden sandals. Dacca *dhutis* and *chádars* are sometimes very valuable, and made of

fine muslin, the price in the town ranging from 4s. to £5 each. The dress of a female of the shopkeeping class consists of a *sári*, a cloth thrown over the body and covering the head. Formerly this dress was made of country stuff, but of late years English manufactured cloth with a printed border has come into fashion. The ornaments worn by them are gold nose-rings (*nath* and *beshar*); necklaces of gold beads (*dánd*); silver armlets (*kálsi*), bracelets (*bálá*), anklets (*kháru*); silver waist-chain (*got*). The dress of a Hindu widow is of English cloth without any coloured border, and she does not wear any ornaments. Children of a well-to-do shopkeeper are usually dressed in a waistcloth made of country cloth, a muslin or cotton sheet, and sometimes a coat and shoes. As a bed-covering in winter the family generally use quilts stuffed with cotton. With the exception of shopkeepers who live in the city or the large towns, the washing of the clothes is generally done by the females of the family.

The dress of an average cultivator is of a much cheaper description, and consists of (1) a waistband (*dhuti*), either country-made or of coarse English manufacture, from six to nine feet in length, but seldom reaching below the knees; (2) a handkerchief or napkin; (3) a thick cotton sheet (*giláph*) folded double, and used in winter. The females' dress consists of a thick country-made *sári*. As ornaments, they wear an inferior description of nose-ring (*nath*) and anklets (*kháru*). Hindu females of this class wear shell bracelets (*sankha*); Muhammadan women prefer lac bracelets (*churi*). The children generally go about naked till their ninth or tenth year. Sometimes, but not often, they wear a very small waistcloth. As in the case of the shopkeepers, the women generally do their own washing. The night-covering in winter is a quilt stuffed with rags (*kánthá*), composed of old clothes and rejected household rags. It is preserved with great care, and is never washed.

Dwellings.—The building materials employed in the construction of a house of a well-to-do shopkeeper are of much the same description as those used in the house of an average husbandman. The roofing consists of a framework of bamboo thatched with straw. The posts are generally of bamboo in small houses; but in the larger ones there are usually wooden posts, the number and quality of which vary according to the circumstances of the owner. The beams and rafters are also bamboo, but in some of the larger houses they are constructed of wood. The walls usually

consist of a species of reed called *ikar*, lined internally with a coating of clay mixed with cow-dung, in order to keep out the cold and to diminish the risk of fire. In some of the houses of the wealthier shopkeepers the walls are constructed of a superior description of mats called *maulá* and *dhárá*. The doors are generally made of mats, but wooden doors are frequently met with in the principal house of the dwelling of a well-to-do shopkeeper. A dwelling consists of several separate houses, each of which forms a single room, except in very rare cases, where the apartment is divided by a mat partition. The number of separate houses in a homestead generally indicates the number of rooms occupied by a husbandman or a shopkeeper.

The dwelling of an average cultivator generally consists of four huts, built one on each side of the yard; (1) the *Baraghar*, or principal apartment, where the household work is performed during the day, and where the head of the family sleeps at night; (2) the *Rashuighar*, or cook-house; (3) *Golághar*, or storehouse, and where the other members of the family sleep at night; and (4) the *Dhenksálá*, or shed in which the rice is husked. Each of these houses or apartments is made to serve two or more purposes according as occasion arises. There is no fixed rule regulating the number of houses in a cultivator's homestead. It is not unusual to find less than four houses, and it occasionally happens that a single apartment serves for a sleeping room, a storehouse, and also for cooking purposes. There are no properly constructed outer and inner apartments in the dwelling of a peasant. The sitting-place for the males of the family, and where friends and visitors are received, is either a shady place in the open yard, or in the verandah of the principal apartment. Besides the four houses which form his dwelling, a prosperous agriculturist has generally two sheds, in one of which the cattle are kept at night, and in the other during the day. The homestead of a well-to-do shopkeeper varies from two to six separate houses, according to his needs. Where there are only two houses, the receiving of friends is performed in the verandah of the principal house, but in larger dwellings one of the houses is reserved for the purpose. It often happens in villages where the population is increasing that the extent of raised land available for homestead sites (*bhiti*) has become so contracted as to limit the number of houses, and in such cases three or more persons dwell in apartments which in other parts of the country would only serve for a single man.

THE FURNITURE in the houses both of shopkeepers and cultivators is much the same. The following list, which has been furnished by a native gentleman who fills the post of Deputy-Collector in the District, divides the articles into seven classes, namely—(*a*) Furniture for sitting and sleeping:—(1) *taktaposh*, a wooden bedstead; (2) *kambal*, a blanket; (3) *morá*, a cane or bamboo stool; (4) *satranji*, a striped carpet of thick cotton cloth; (5) *jal chaukí*, a stool or chair; (6) *pátí*, a mat of fine texture; (7) *sap*, another description of mat of not so fine a quality; (8) different sorts of coarse mats; (9) *piri*, a plank seat; (10) *chhálá*, a coarse cloth of jute thread; (11) *kusásan*, a seat made of *kusá* grass; (12) a quilt and pillow stuffed with cotton or rags; and (13) a mosquito curtain is sometimes found in the houses of the wealthier class of shopkeepers. (*b*) Eating utensils:—(1) *páthar*, a stone plate; (2) *thál*, a plate generally of brass or bell-metal; (3) *báti*, a brass cup; (4) *ghati*, a brass water-pot; (5) *páli*, a brass tumbler; (6) *básan*, a crockery plate, used only by Muhammadans. (*c*) Cooking utensils:—(1) *bokná koná*, a brass pot; (2) *kárái*, an iron pan; (3) *raing*, an earthen pot; (4) *pátil*, an earthen pot of smaller size than the above; (5) *sharú*, an earthen pot-cover; (6) *málsá*, an earthen cup; (7) *kalsi*, an earthen water-pitcher; (8) *jhajair*, an earthen vessel for straining water when washing rice; (9) *hátá*, an iron ladle or spoon; (10) *fagari*, a wooden bowl; (11) *málái*, a cup made of a cocoa-nut shell; (12) *dáiler kátá*, a pestal and mortar used for grinding pulses; (13) *khuti*, a small earthen pot for keeping spices; (14) *sil* and *putá*, a flat stone and a muller used in grinding condiments for curry. (*d*) Instruments for cutting or digging:—(1) *hát-dáo*, a large hand-knife; (2) *bati-dáo*, a fish-knife; (3) *saratá*, a nut-cracker; (4) *káchi*, a sickle; (5) *kodál*, a spade; (6) *khantá*, a digging hoe; (7) *kurál*, an axe. (*e*) Miscellaneous implements:—(1) *chongá*, a bamboo ladder; (2) *hok*, a piece of hard wood with a pointed end, used for making holes in the ground when putting stakes round a field; (3) *samati*, a bamboo needle, used in thatching houses; (4) *barsuch*, a large needle; (5) *such*, a small needle; (6) *chár*, an earthen vessel containing fodder for the cattle; (7) *lari*, a stick for driving cows; (8) *ser*, a cane measure containing one ser (two lbs.); (9) *kátá*, a measure for grain, of various sizes; (10) *sichká*, an iron rod or cane twig for cleaning the *hookah* tube; (11) *malliká*, an earthen lamp; (12) *gáchhá*, an earthen stand for the above; (13) *hookah*, a hubble-bubble pipe for tobacco; (14) *kalki*, an earthen bowl for

tobacco, and placed on the top of the *hookah* when smoking; (15) *baithak*, a *hookah* stand, made either of brass, wood, or earth; (16) *dhenki*, a pedal used in husking rice; (17) *udkhál*, a large wooden mortar; (18) *chhiá*, a mallet or pestle used with the above; (19) *kulá*, a flail; (20) *chimtá*, a pair of tongs; (21) *chálan*, a sieve; (22) *tukri*, a basket for carrying earth; (23) *jhátá*, a broom; (24) *luri patil*, an earthen pot filled with water and mud, used in giving a fresh coating of mud to the floor of the house every morning; (25) *chháti*, an umbrella of cloth or bamboo leaves; (26) *barsi*, a fish-hook; (27) *hochá*, (28) *pálo*, (29) *bajchná*, network traps of bamboo for catching fish; (30) *konch*, an iron instrument for catching fish; (31) *birá*, a stand of straw for putting water-pitchers, &c., on; (32) *kákai*, a comb; (33) *ainá*, a mirror; (34) *khátá*, an account book; (35) *kalam*, a pen; (36) *doát*, an inkstand; (37) *kághaz*, paper. (*f*) Utensils for holding things:—(1) *sinduk*, a large wooden chest; (2) *petará*, a cane box; (3) *jhail*, a small cane box used for keeping the toilet things of females; (4) *máchá*, a bamboo platform for keeping the grain pots; (5) *dol*, a large cylindrical basket made of a species of coarse mat, and used for storing grain; (6) *dulá*, a smaller basket than the above; (7) *matki*, an earthen jar. This is generally buried in the ground, and as it is a receptacle for valuables, some one sleeps over it; (8) *dáli*, a cane basket; (9) *kulsá*, an earthen pot for keeping fire; (10) *támáku dibá*, a bamboo vessel used for keeping tobacco in; (11) *khichá*, a small cotton bag; (12) a net of jute for holding earthen pots of various kinds and sizes; (13) *chhálá*, a sack for carrying or storing grain; (14) *jhákí*, a large bamboo basket; (15) *sáji*, a small bamboo basket. (*g*) Works of art:—(1) *Ganesh*, the idol of Ganesh; (2) *Lakshmír Sárá*, a picture of the goddess Lakshmí; (3) *pat*, pictures of various kinds, mostly of gods and goddesses; (4) *putul*, earthen images of various kinds of animals. All the above articles are never found in the same house; many are possessed only by the shopkeeping class, and others only by agriculturists. The articles mentioned in the last class are of course never found in the house of a Muhammadan.

THE FOOD of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of rice, pulses, various kinds of country vegetables, fish, milk, sugar, fruits, and different preparations of rice. There is no difference in the description of food consumed by a shopkeeper and that of a peasant, saving that the food of the latter is coarser in quality, and, with the exception of rice, less in quantity. He gets milk only when he possesses a milch

cow, and not always even then, as he sells it. Sugar and fruit are not in very common use. The children in the house of a well-to-do shopkeeper generally have some dried preparation of rice, such as *muri*, *chirá*, and *khai*, with sugar and plantains for breakfast in the morning. A peasant's children eat *pántá*, or rice which is steeped in water all night, together with a little fish or vegetables, and in the absence of this, with plain salt. The average monthly living expenses of a well-to-do household consisting of five persons, viz., three adults and two children, are stated by the Collector to be as follow:—Rice, 246 lbs. or 3 maunds, 9s.; pulses, 20 lbs., 1s. 6d.; salt, 4 lbs., 6d.; oil, 10 lbs., 3s.; fish, 4s.; vegetables, 1s. 6d.; turmeric, 1½d.; chilies, 4½d.; spices, 3d.; betel-nut, 1s.; tobacco, 6d.; sugar, 2s.; milk, 3s.; clarified butter (*ghi*), 6d.; fruits, 1s. 3d.; preparations of rice, 6d.; fuel, 2s.; clothing, 6s.; repairs of house, 3s.; extras, say 6d.; total average monthly expenses, £2, 0s. 6d.

It is not easy to estimate the living expenses of an ordinary husbandman, as he himself raises a great portion of the articles necessary for his own consumption. Rice, pulses, vegetables, onions, chilies, tobacco, or betel-nut are all home productions. Fish, he often catches himself when his work does not call him to the field. The following figures, therefore, only show the amount which he would have to spend if he bought all his requisites in the market. They refer to the same-sized household as that given above:—Rice, 285 lbs., 9s. 6d.; pulse, 16 lbs., 1s.; salt, 4 lbs., 6d.; oil, 4 lbs., 1s. 1½d.; vegetables, 6d.; molassses and sugar, 3d.; turmeric, 1½d.; chilies, 4½d.; onions, 1½d.; betel-nut, 3d.; fuel, 1s.; fish, 1s.; clothing, 1s. 6d.; house repairs, 6d.; extras, 9d.; total average monthly value of living and other necessaries for a cultivator's household consisting of three adults and two children, 18s. 6d. Wheat, except in sweetmeats, is not generally eaten. Many Muhammadans use fermented bread prepared by professional bakers. Musalmáns also eat all kinds of meat except pork, if the animal has been killed according to the prescribed religious manner. Animal food is used very sparingly by the Hindus, but they are allowed to eat pigeons and ducks, and also goat's flesh, if the creature has first been sacrificed to some deity. Some of the lower and poorer classes also eat turtle which abound in the great rivers. *Pán* and tobacco are much used.

The following paragraphs regarding the vegetables, fish, and fruits used as food are quoted from Mr Clay's Report in the "History and

Statistics of the Dacca Division" :—"In the city, English vegetables are sold in the bázár, and are much prized among the richer classes. Chárá-punjí potatoes command a ready sale, and a superior sort, grown near Kolátiá Hát in the north-west of Dacca, are procurable at certain seasons. Native vegetables are generally cooked with *ghi*, mustard, oil, or a mixture of it and *til* oil, salt, capsicums, acid fruits, *nim* leaves, &c. A variety of gourds, tuberous roots, and other vegetables are consumed by the natives under the general denomination of *tarkári*. There are no English equivalents for most of the native names, and it seems useless to reproduce them. Every native adds about 1½ *káchhás* (6 drachms) of salt to his meal. The poorer classes add a seasoning composed of turmeric (*haldi*), laurel leaf (*tej-pátá*), and red chilies (*lál marich*). Garlic, coriander, and onions also occasionally enter into the composition. Endless varieties of fish are sold in the bázárs. They are cheapest during the cold season, scarce and expensive during the rains. They are generally fried in oil with salt, turmeric, and spices, and eaten with the rice and vegetables. The poorer classes live on the *puti*, small *chingri* (prawn), *naulá*, and a mess consisting of small fry called *pánch mishálí*.

FRUIT.—"The mango is greatly prized, and when in season no meal is considered complete without it. *Kánthál* or jack-fruit ranks next. It is eaten raw, or the juice mixed with milk and drunk in the hot weather. The seeds of the fruit are also eaten, and when properly roasted are not unlike sweet chestnuts. The cocoa-nut (*narikel*) is a favourite fruit, and is much used in the preparation of sweetmeats. The date (*khejúr*) does not flourish in the District, its fruit being small and tasteless. From its juice, however, molasses is made. *Bel* (*Ægle marmelos*) is chiefly drunk in the form of sherbet, and is said to make a very wholesome beverage. Plantains form an universal and a favourite article of diet. The sour plums of the *bhair* are much sought after by the poorer classes. Oranges and sweet limes are imported from Silhet in the cold weather, and are in great demand. In July, pine-apples sell at two for one pice, or a farthing. Papayas, guavas, cucumbers, water-melons, &c., find a ready sale. From April till July, the seeds of a water-plant called *makáná* (*Euryale ferox*), peculiar to Eastern Bengal, are sold extensively in the bázárs. The kernels of the seeds consist of starchy matter. They are eaten alone, or with milk and sugar. The inhabitants of Dacca are singularly partial to this tasteless fruit, of which, when

cheap, four or five seeds cost one pice. The *singárá* nut, though less common than in Hindustán, sells here at one pice per pound. Large quantities are sold towards the beginning of the cold season."

AMUSEMENTS.—I also reproduce the following account of the amusements and games of chance, sport, &c., of the people of Dacca District:—"The principal amusements are kite-flying, bird-fights, *nautches*, *lilás* or theatrical representations, cards, and other games of chance. In former times boating was a favourite pastime, and probably originated with the Nawábs, who took great pleasure in this exercise, and had magnificent state barges. In imitation of these, the merchants, weavers, and others kept pleasure-boats fancifully decorated, with their crews dressed in various costumes; and moonlight regattas formed at one time one of the chief amusements of the people. The practice has now died out, and regattas are almost unknown except on special occasions, when they are got up among the natives for the entertainment of visitors by the European residents at the station. Kite-flying is a very general pastime during the cold weather and spring months. The kites are made of coloured paper stretched over a light framework of bamboo, and, as a rule have no tail or tassels like the kites in England. The string is wound on a revolving spindle, and is let out or shortened at pleasure by a rotary motion of the hands. Kite-flying at times becomes a perfect nuisance, and has to be prohibited in the public streets and thoroughfares for carriages. Young men as well as boys engage in it, and evince a skill and dexterity in the management of their kites which would challenge admiration were it displayed in the pursuit of any less unmanly and childish amusement.

"Deer are sometimes caught with nets, and the natives generally, especially the Musalmáns, are fond of shooting, if such a term can be applied to their habit of prowling about in the jungle, and murdering any unlucky beast or bird that gives them a chance of a close shot. Angling is a common pursuit, but it is practised in a clumsy and unskilful manner. The Hindus are fond of fights between rams, *bulbuls* or nightingales, *dahiáls*, and *mainás*; and large sums of money are frequently staked on the event. Other indoor amusements consist of games of chance with dice, cowries, cards, eggs, and cocoa-nuts; while the weavers and other Vaishnavs indulge in *nautches* and *lilás* or theatrical representations of the exploits of Krishna. Among the Hindus the *bchelá* (a kind of violin) is the

common musical instrument, but the European pattern is now much used, and is procurable in all the bázárs. It need perhaps scarcely be mentioned that these instruments are not equal to Cremonas. The *sitár* (a kind of guitar with three strings) is the favourite instrument among the Musalmáns. Their passive amusements are *nautches*, fireworks, cock-fighting, dice, and cards. The above sports and pastimes, requiring, as a rule, no courage or endurance, and little or no physical exertion, are eminently characteristic of the indolent and spiritless nature of the natives of this District, who are, as a body, fair average specimens of the languid population of the Bengal Delta. It must be admitted, however, that some attempt has been made, in the city at least, to introduce a more manly style of amusement among the rising generation; and some of the boys at the Government College may now be seen, during the cold weather, imitating the performances of the European residents at cricket. They do not, however, appear to appreciate or enter into the spirit of the game; and their play is generally of the mildest description."

AGRICULTURE; CEREAL CROPS.—Rice forms the staple crop of the District, the three principal classes being as follow:—(1) *Boro*, or *ropá* rice, subdivided into two varieties, the *boro* proper and *lipá*. The *boro* proper is planted in deep marshy ground, and on the miry edges of newly-formed land (*chars*). The seed is first sown on a plot of moist but high ground; as soon as the young shoots are about a foot high they are transplanted, and planted into the field prepared to receive them. The nursery, in which the seed is first sown, is thus prepared: In the month of October the land is worked, by ploughing or otherwise, until it is converted into mud about two and a half feet deep. The seed meanwhile is subjected to a forcing process. It is enclosed in a bag or basket, and steeped in water for a day, after which the water is drained off and the grain left to dry for another day. A little water is then sprinkled over it at intervals; and as soon as it swells and begins to germinate, the seed is scattered over the surface of the muddy ground. This ground remains wet, and if near the side of a tidal river, is covered with water twice a day. The *lipá* variety is reared substantially in the same way as the *boro* proper, the chief difference being that it is planted in somewhat harder soil. It is so called from the custom of the cultivator to *lipá*, or plaster the ground with a top layer of earth previous to planting. These varieties of rice are sown in December,

January, and February (Paush, Mágh, and Phálgun), and are reaped in April and May (Baisákh and Jyaishtha). Dr Taylor states that this crop yields the largest return, and that the grain is superior in quality to that of either the *áman* or *áus* varieties. Another species of *boro* rice is called *sháitá*, from the fact of being reaped in sixty days after sowing. (2) *Áus*, or autumn rice, is sown on rather high land, and is of rapid growth. It is sown broadcast in March, April, and May (Phálgun, Chaitra, and Baisákh), and reaped in June, July, and August. (3) The *áman*, or cold-weather crop, is the one which is most extensively cultivated in the District. It is sown in low-lying lands of the best description, both broadcast and by dibbling. In the Fiscal Divisions of Mánikganj and Bikrampur it is sown broadcast, but in other parts of the District, such as Ráipurá and Kápásiá, the seed is regularly planted. In the latter localities, the soil is prepared by repeated ploughings from December up to February, the seed being sown after the first fall of rain. This rice is very rapid in growth, and, in swamps in the rainy season, it frequently shoots up twelve inches in twenty-four hours, as the inundation rises. A high and sudden rise of water, however, is apt to overtop the plant, in which case the crop is lost. In general the *áman* rice is sown in March, April, and May (Phálgun, Chaitra, and Baisákh), the same as the *áus* rice, and reaped in November or December (Agraháyan and Paush). This description of rice is said to comprise no fewer than fifty different varieties of grain. (4) *Uri* or *jarádhán* is an indigenous kind of rice found growing in marshes and low-lying grassy tracts. The grain is very small, ten pounds of paddy producing only about one pound of the husked rice. It is gathered for consumption by the poor people only; the rice is said to be of good quality, although inferior to the cultivated sorts. The other cereal crops grown in the District are wheat (*goham*) and barley (*jab*), but are cultivated only to a very small extent, and by a few villages. These are a winter crop; sown in October and November (Kártik), and reaped in March and April (Phálgun).

Green Crops.—Two kinds of millet are grown, *chiná* and *kangni*, both being raised in the low-lying lands after the rains, and reaped in March and April. The pulses cultivated in the District are *matar* (*Pisum sativum*), *kaláí* (*Dolichus pilosus*), *musuri* (*Cicer lens*), *mug* (*Phaseolus mungo*), and *but* or gram. The oil-seeds are *sarishá* (*mustard*), *til* (*sesamum*), and *tisi* (*linseed*). Mustard is

grown chiefly in the northern division of the District, and in parts where the soil is moist, often without any previous preparation of the ground. On the higher sites the land is ploughed. It is sown in September and October, and reaped in January and February. *Til* is most extensively cultivated along the Lakhmiá river, and is frequently raised along with a crop of *áman* rice. It is sown in February and reaped in June and July.

FIBRES.—Cotton was formerly grown extensively in the District, but its cultivation is now much reduced; and since the decline of the fine Dacca muslins, it has almost entirely ceased. It is chiefly raised in the northern part of the District. The following description of the plant and its mode of cultivation is extracted from Taylor's "Topography of Dacca" (1840):—"The material of which the fine Dacca muslins are made is entirely the produce of the District. The plant is an annual, and attains the height of about five feet. It is described by Roxburgh as a variety of the *Gossipium herbaceum*, and is said to differ from the common plant of Bengal in the following particulars:—'1st, The branches are more erect, with fewer of them, and the lobes of the leaves more pointed; 2d, the whole of the plant is tinged with a reddish colour, even the petioles and nerves of the leaves are less pubescent; 3d, the peduncles which support the flowers are longer, and the exterior margins of the petals are tinged with red; 4th, the staple of the cotton is longer, much finer, and softer.' This is the *desí* or indigenous cotton of the District, which has been cultivated in the northern division from time immemorial. Formerly, when this article was more extensively cultivated than at present, there were different shades of quality observable in the staple, which either cannot now be distinguished, or have degenerated into one of an inferior degree. They were known by the names of Phuti, Nurmá, and Bairaít. The cotton of the present day, it is affirmed by the natives, is inferior to what it formerly was. The crops are said to be less abundant, and the fibres, though apparently equally fine and soft, are shorter and more firmly adherent to the seed than the produce of former years. The Dacca cotton, however, notwithstanding the deterioration imputed to it, still ranks as an article of finer quality than the produce of other parts of Bengal. Of late years, small quantities of it have occasionally been exported to the Calcutta bázárs, where it always sells at a higher price than cotton imported from other parts of the country. Two cotton crops are raised in the District; they are gathered in April and

September respectively; but the first yields the finest produce, and is the one chiefly cultivated. The seeds which are used for sowing are carefully picked, and after having been dried in the sun, are preserved in an earthen pot in which oil or *ghi* has been kept, and the vessel, with its mouth stopped up so as to exclude the air, is hung up to the roof of the hut, and over the spot on which the fire is usually kindled. The high lands are selected for this crop, and are ploughed for eight or twelve times, up to September and October, when the seeds are sown. This is done in parallel rows, distant about a cubit from each other, and before the seeds are dropped into the ground they are moistened with water. The cotton plant is liable to injury from hailstorms, heavy rain, and caterpillars. It impoverishes the soil, and the same field never produces successively more than two crops of good cotton. Formerly the ground for cotton was allowed to lie fallow every fourth year, and it appears to be owing to the neglect of this circumstance in the present day that the produce is now inferior in quality to that of former times. A good crop is estimated at eight maunds per *bighá*, or about seventeen and a half hundredweights per acre. The northern division of the District produces the best cotton, especially that portion bordering upon the Meghná and Brahmaputra, in Sonárgáon, Kápásiá, Tok, and Jangalbárí, in which this article was chiefly cultivated in former times. The soil here, it may be remarked, possesses the different constituents that are supposed to be essentially necessary to the formation of good cotton ground in America, and it is perhaps owing to this circumstance that the superiority of the Dacca cotton over that grown in other parts of Bengal may be attributed.

"Baines, in his 'History of the Cotton Manufactures of Britain,' states that 'a mixture of silicious and argillacious earth is the most desirable, with a preponderance of the former;' and more lately it would appear that lime has been found to constitute one of the ingredients. These different earths are present here, especially the silica, which is brought down by the Brahmaputra and renders the lands much drier in this part of the District than in the country bordering on the Ganges. The cotton in the northern division is said to swell less than the produce of other parts of the country. This tendency of the fibre to swell in bleaching is the criterion by which the weavers judge of its quality, but whether it depends on any inherent property in the cotton itself, or on the water used in bleaching, is not known, though there is reason to believe that it

is principally owing to the latter. The thread manufactured at Dhámrái, which was reported by Mr Bebb, the Commercial Resident, to swell the most, is found by the weavers to be equal to the thread of the best factories (*aurangs*), *i.e.*, to swell the least, if bleached in Dacca; but the reverse if the water of Dhámrái be used in the process." A description of the weaving process will be given at a subsequent page, when I come to treat of the manufactures of the District.

JUTE (*pát* or *koshtá*).—A private gentleman in Dacca city has kindly furnished me with the following description of the different kinds of fibre produced in the District:—(1) Karímganj jute, superior in fibre, colour, and length; (2) Bháwál jute has a good length of staple, but is inferior in other respects; (3) Bakrábád jute, rich in colour, possessing a good deal of vegetable oil, and remarkably strong; (4) Bhátiál jute, grown in the Amírábad Fiscal Division; after steeping, it is washed in stagnant water, which renders the fibre weak; it likewise discolours by time, but is of a good length. The following fibres, though not what are commonly known as jute, are sold as such:—(1) *Mestá*, a coarse fibre of a slightly golden colour; native paper is generally manufactured from it; (2) *Michat*, inferior in fibre and colour; also manufactured into paper. (3) *Bidá sundi*, a strong fibre of a pinkish hue, with an excess of vegetable oil, and very heavy. (4) *Mithi*, brown in appearance, strong in fibre, and of very great length. The gentleman who has favoured me with this account is of opinion that this fibre should hold a higher place than jute, and has despatched twenty-seven bales of it to Dundee for the purpose of having its properties tested. (5) *Naliá*, or long reeds; coarse and strong in fibre, and of the same species as *mestá*, but supposed to differ slightly from it. (6) *Rajat*, a very inferior and coarse fibre, growing wild in the jungles. It thrives well in a poor soil, where nothing else could be cultivated, and it is thought probable that this *rajat*, if introduced into the market, would soon draw the attention of rope-makers and gunny manufacturers, especially as it is very durable in water. A sample of it has been despatched to Dundee for trial. The jute trade of Dacca is now very extensive, and the following particulars regarding its cost of production and price are condensed chiefly from the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," the native weights being altered to their English equivalents. The figures for the later years are obtained from special reports. [*See also Accounts of Nadiyá and 24 Parganás.*]

An acre of land will produce on an average an out-turn of about seventeen and a half hundredweights of jute, produced at a cost of about £1, 11s. 6d., made up as follows:—rent, 4s. 6d.; hoeing, 6s.; weeding, 12s.; cutting and washing, 9s. In the year 1855 the average market price at Náráinganj was 4s. a hundredweight. Since then there has been a gradual increase both in price and production. In 1867 the price was 6s. a hundredweight, and rates went up steadily till 1871, when they reached 11s. 6d. a hundredweight for good quality. Last season (1872–73), however, rates for jute were exceptionally low, and were quoted at about half the above rates, or 6s. a hundredweight. Jute, however, passes through several hands before it comes to the Náráinganj market, and the whole of the price is not received by the producer. Some cultivators grow the staple under advances; and as soon as the crop is off the field, it is delivered to the capitalist who has made the advance, and who takes it at the ruling rate, but with enormous interest for his money. Others carry their produce to the nearest village market, and dispose of it to petty dealers who bring it to the principal marts for sale. Transactions between these petty dealers and the actual purchasers are carried on by means of a class of brokers or commission agents. The Jute Commissioners, at present engaged in collecting statistics regarding the cultivation, reported on the 10th May 1873 that the exports of the fibre from Náráinganj, the great jute mart of Dacca, amounted during the last season, 1872–73, to from thirty-five to forty thousand tons (between ten and eleven *lákhs* of maunds), against 21,500 to 25,000 tons during the season 1871–72. The fall in prices has seriously affected the cultivation, and the coming season's crop (1873–74) is estimated to be two-fifths less than that of the last season. I hope to receive the general report of the Jute Commissioners in time to incorporate it with my Statistical Account of Pabná District, within which the great jute mart of Sirájganj is situated.

Hemp (*son-pát*) is cultivated, but not to any great extent now-a-days. The seed is sown in October and November (Agraháyan), and in March and April (Phálgun) the plants are plucked up by the roots, tied into bundles, and macerated in the nearest marsh or river, until the bark and woody parts, by becoming loose, are easily detached from each other. The fibrous part, which constitutes the hemp, is then divested of its mucilage by pouring water over it, and by gently beating it upon a wooden plank. An

acre of good land is estimated to produce about six and a half hundredweights of good clean hemp, the price for which in 1839 was 5s. 5d. a hundredweight. It was formerly produced in this and the neighbouring Districts in large quantities for the use of the British navy, and in 1806 no less than forty-one thousand hundredweights were purchased by the Commercial Resident in Dacca and the surrounding Districts for that purpose The quantity now raised is small; it is seldom exported, but used in the manufacture of fishing-nets.

RHEA.—Another important article of cultivation seems likely to spring up in the District. The soil is said to be perfectly adapted for the growth of Rhea grass, and the following notes on its cultivation and manufacture have been kindly furnished to me by the gentleman to whom I am indebted for the short notice of the different kinds of jute grown in the District:—"I transplanted a few specimens of Rhea in my garden at the end of July; they thrived without any further attention, and five months afterwards were in wild luxuriance, with an average height of five feet. As soon as the roots had gained sufficient strength, they sent forth small shoots around the mother-plant, and they still continue sending forth similar shoots to the present day. I have had recourse to two experiments in attempting to separate the fibre from the stem. 1st, I steeped the plant in stagnant water for twenty-four hours; when the fibre softened, I had it pulled by the finger-nails, but the process left a slimy vegetable matter in the fibre; 2d, to free it from this I steeped the plant in water diluted with potash. This second process freed the fibre from the viscous layer, but at the same time took away that glossy appearance which the first process had left; it also appeared to reduce the Rhea. In the former process I found great difficulty in extracting the fibre from the stem, as the strings from the fibre after soaking become entangled together in one confused mass. There is no doubt that the Rhea will grow in this District without much care or trouble, and become a valuable addition to its products; but in order to carry on these endeavours with success, much fruitless labour would be saved by the importation of a few skilled Chinese well acquainted with the growth and manufacture of this valuable article."

MISCELLANEOUS CROPS.—The following description of the miscellaneous crops grown in Dacca is principally condensed from Taylor's "Topography of Dacca," and the "History and Statistics of the

Dacca Division" :—INDIGO (*see also Nadiyá Account*) is chiefly cultivated on newly-formed alluvial deposits; it is sown in October, and cut in June and July. These are the autumn sowings; but in the northern part of the District the sowing takes place in spring, about February. For indigo cultivation the lands are divided into convenient parcels, and petty native superintendents are appointed to see that the fields are properly ploughed, sown, and weeded, and the plant cut in due time. When cut, the plant is taken to the factory in boats, and steeped in vats until it ferments. The water is then drawn off into a lower set of vats, and beaten by coolies with small paddles until the produce settles at the bottom. The water is then let out, and the granular sediment is passed into a boiler, where it is boiled for about five or six hours, and strained through a strong sheet. The sediment is next put into frames and pressed. The cake thus made is cut up into smaller ones, and put on shelves to dry. The ordinary market price of Dacca indigo in 1867 was returned at £24 a hundredweight. In 1871, the Collector returned the price at from £30 to £32 a hundredweight. SUGAR-CANE is planted in November or December, and cut in February or March of the second year. The Dacca molasses is of an inferior quality, and is entirely consumed in cooking or in the preparation of sweetmeats. The sugar used in the town is imported from other Districts. *Pán*, or betel-leaf, of three varieties, is cultivated in Dacca. It is planted in November or December, and when once grown up, continues to yield leaves during several years. There is a good deal of initial expense in preparing the ground for cultivation and in constructing a shelter for the creeper, but the crop is a very paying one. The betel-nut or *supárí* tree is extensively cultivated in the southern part of the District, and yields a considerable revenue to proprietors of land. It begins to bear about the eighth year, and is most productive from that time up to the sixteenth year, when the produce falls off. A large export trade is carried on in this article with Rangpur, Assam, and Arákán. The cocoa-nut tree (*nárikel*) is very abundant; it bears in the seventh year, the average yearly yield of one tree being seventy nuts, worth at the present day about four shillings, or double what they were quoted at in 1867. Chilies (*lanká*) are grown in considerable quantities, and largely exported to Calcutta. Turmeric (*haldí*) and ginger (*adrak*) are chiefly cultivated in the Fiscal Division of Sonárgáon. Tobacco is raised by the cultivators for their own consumption, and a considerable quan-

tity is imported from Rangpur. Safflower cultivation has extended very much of late years, and is now one of the main exports of the District. The seed is sown in the months of October and November, and the flower gathered in February and March. When gathered, it is put on a mat, and washed and kneaded with the feet. It is then worked up into small cakes and dried. From the seed an oil is expressed which is used for burning. The stalk yields firewood, and its ashes are prized as potash, which the villagers use for washing their clothes. The cultivators are said to be now beginning to adulterate the cakes in order to add to their weight. The average price of the best safflower in 1867 was about £4, 10s. a hundredweight, but its value depends upon the quality. In 1867 Mr A. L. Clay, in his District Report in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," estimated the cost of sowing and cultivating ten *bighás* (about 3⅓ acres) of land with safflower as follows:—Digging, 10s.; ploughing, £1; seed, 4s.; weeding, 5s.; gathering the flower, £1, 6s.; washing, 16s.; rent, 5s.; total, £4, 6s. Average yield, about 123 lbs., which, at £4, 10s. a hundredweight, would be worth about £4, 19s., leaving a profit of 13s. The foregoing figures, however, do not represent the actual expense of cultivation, but what it would cost if hired labour was altogether employed. In 1873 the average price was officially stated at £8, 4s. *per cwt.*; the profits are now very large, and steadily rising. Produce of Dacca District, 8785 *cwts.* in 1872–73; total exports, 12,080 *cwts.*—(*Calcutta Gazette* of April 16, 1873). Several kinds of gourds and melons, plantains, pine-apples, limes, mango-trees, &c., are cultivated in garden land in the immediate vicinity of the houses.

Rice Cultivation.—No improvement is visible in the quality of the rice grown in the District. The people sow the best kind of rice they can get, or what description they choose, without any intervention or supervision on the part of the superior landlords. With the exception of a few patches of wheat and Indian corn, rice is the only cereal grown. The area of land under rice cultivation is said to have rather decreased of late years owing to the extension of the jute crop, but this decrease is local, and has been to a great extent compensated by new lands in the northern part of the District which have been cleared and brought under cultivation. The following are the names of the rice plant in its various stages:—As seed it is called *bij*; the young plant is called *jálá*; before the

ear appears, *háli;* when full grown, *dhán;* the unshelled rice is also called by the same name; husked rice, *chául;* and boiled rice, *bhát.* The principal solid preparations made from rice are as follows:—*Khai,* paddy slightly parched and then husked, sold at about three farthings a pound; *chirá,* paddy steeped in water and afterwards fried and husked, three farthings a pound; *muri,* paddy boiled and afterwards parched and husked, sold at the same rate. Another preparation called *binni* is sold at threepence a pound. The chief liquid preparation made from rice is *pachwai,* or rice beer, but which is only made for home consumption, and is not sold. It is manufactured by fermenting steeped rice with a substance called *bákar.* For a list of the different sorts of rice grown, see my Account of the neighbouring District of Faridpur.

Area; Out-turn of Crops, &c.—According to the Surveyor-General, the area of the District is 2902 square miles. The Collector, however, returns it at 3217 (*i.e.,* previous to transfers in 1871). Cultivated, 2245 square miles, or upwards of two-thirds of the whole area of the District; lands fallow, or temporarily out of cultivation, 24 square miles; cultivable forest land, 672 square miles; uncultivable area, including marshes, lakes, and rivers, with the exception of the great rivers Meghná and Ganges, 276 square miles. Total, 3217. No statistics exist showing the cultivation of each kind of crop; but the Collector is of opinion that, speaking roughly, in the rains three-fifths of the cultivated area are under rice, one-fifth is fallow, and one-fifth under jute; and that in the dry season two-fifths are under oil-seeds and pulses, two-fifths fallow, and one-fifth under other crops. The best sorts of rice-producing land pay a rent of from 9s. to 12s. an acre, the average rates being for high rice land 4s. 8d. an acre, low rice land 4s. 6d. an acre, and jute land 4s. 4d. an acre. In Bikrampur Fiscal Division, the yield of paddy is from about thirteen to seventeen and a half hundredweights per acre; and in Bháwál Fiscal Division, from twenty-two to twenty-six hundredweights per acre for the best varieties of land. In the former Fiscal Division the rent is regulated by the demand for the land, and in the latter according to its fertility. This land bears only one crop of rice during the year. In Bikrampur paddy sells on an average at from forty to forty-five pounds for 1s., and in Bháwál from forty-five to fifty-five pounds for 1s. In winter, after the paddy crop is reaped, a second crop of mustard-seed and various kind of pulses is raised from the rice-fields. An acre of land generally produces an average of about four and a half hundredweights of mustard, valued

at from 8s. to 9s. 6d. a hundredweight; or from four and a half to six and a half hundredweights of pulses, of the worth of from 3s. 4d. to 4s. 9d. a hundredweight. In Bháwál Fiscal Division there is generally no second crop, but in all other parts of the District it is customary to raise a second crop on the same land after the paddy has been harvested. The average out-turn and value of an acre of two-crop land is stated to be about as follows:—rice, fifteen and a third hundredweights of paddy, value £2, 2s.; mustard, four and a half hundredweights, value £2, 2s.; total, £4, 4s., exclusive of the value of the straw, which would be worth about 9s. more. This average out-turn is very much less than the estimate as given in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," which is believed to be excessive. But the estimate given here does not include jute or safflower cultivation, the profits from which are greater. The yield of jute is generally seventeen hundredweights per acre, worth about 9s. 4d. a hundredweight; and nearly every husbandman with a farm of five acres has at least a patch of two-thirds of an acre under jute. As before stated, however, the price of jute in the past season (1872-73) was exceptionally low, and only amounted to about 6s. a hundredweight, as reported by the Jute Commissioners.

POSITION OF THE CULTIVATORS.—A farm of above seventeen acres is considered as exceptionally large, and one below three and a half acres as an exceptionally small one. About eight acres would make a comfortable-sized holding, although a single pair of bullocks cannot cultivate more than about three and a half acres of land, as the oxen are very small and weak. A holding of five acres would make a peasant as well off as a petty shopkeeper, and would enable him to live as comfortably as a man with a monthly salary of sixteen shillings. This amount is very little to support a family upon; but a cultivator with five acres of land raises nearly everything necessary for his own support, and the sale of his surplus produce makes him well off. The husbandmen seldom change their holdings, and the same land generally descends from father to son; so that most of the cultivators may be said to have a sort of right of occupancy, although when a dispute occurs with the superior landlord the cultivator generally loses the case. The number of husbandmen who are acknowledged to hold their lands with a right of occupancy, and as such registered in the Courts, is only 214. The cultivators of the *char* or alluvial lands have no right of occupancy, as they frequently change their place of abode. None

of the husbandmen have been acknowledged as possessing a right to hold their lands in perpetuity without enhancement of rent. Dacca is not a District where the Land Law (Act X. of 1859) has been much worked; and in land cases for enhancement in the Courts the cultivator seldom alleges that he holds at a fixed rent, but merely objects to the grounds of enhancement. A statement of the cases and applications under this Act will be found in the administrative portion of this Statistical Account. There are a few cases of proprietors of small estates in the District who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary estates without either a superior landlord (*zamíndár*) above them, or a sub-holder (*krishán*) or labourer of any sort under them. A peasant with a middling-sized household of five persons can live comfortably on an income of about £1, 4s., whether in cash or in kind. Most households are supported on a very small amount in cash, and the sum here mentioned is the money value of what a household buying everything would require. The husbandmen, as a rule, are in debt; but not for food or cost of living. It is on account of other expenses, such as marriages, &c., that they get into debt. The present Collector of the District states that he has not personally met with cases of cultivators getting into debt for seed, except in very bad years. Altogether, the position of the husbandmen of Dacca may be taken to be a very fair one, and as a class they are generally well off.

THE DOMESTIC ANIMALS OF THE DISTRICT are oxen, used for agricultural purposes; buffaloes, generally used for their milk; and cows, horses, sheep, goats, pigs, and fowls, reared for food, or as articles of trade. An average cow sells from £1 to £1, 4s.; a pair of oxen from £3 to £3, 10s.; a pair of buffaloes from £6 to £7; a score of sheep £3; a score of kids, £2, 10s.; a score of full-grown pigs from £7 to £8, according to the Collector's Report in 1871.

THE PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS are as follows:—Plough (*nángal*); joál (*yoke*); harrow (*mai*); another description of harrow (*áchrá*); clod-crusher (*itábárí*); sickle (*káchí*); spade (*kodáli*). With one plough a husbandman is able to cultivate about five acres of land, but he would require two pairs of oxen for ploughing (see last page). The cattle cost £5 to £6, and the implements about £1, 10s.; the whole representing a capital of from £6, 10s. to £7, 10s.

PLOUGHING commences at sunrise and ceases at noon, during which the two sets of oxen are employed alternately. The rice plant

is cut about three feet from the ear, and is tied up into sheaves of about a span in circumference. It is conveyed to the cultivator's hut either by water, or on a hurdle drawn by cattle, and is usually stacked. The grain is separated from the ear by being trodden out by the cattle. After being winnowed it is dried in the sun, and then stored upon a raised stage of mats and bamboos within the hut. Pulse, mustard-seed, and all the smaller grains, are beaten out with a stick. The husking of paddy is usually performed by means of a large wooden pestle and mortar in the country, and by means of a contrivance worked by a pedal (*dhenki*) in the towns. The boundaries of fields consist of ridges of earth about eighteen inches in breadth, and from two to three feet in height. These are called *áils*, and in the interior parts of the District constitute the only pathways. The elevated fields in villages, on which the more valuable products are raised, are usually separated from each other by ditches and fences of bamboo, rattan, or other thorny plant.

WAGES AND PRICES.—Wages have considerably increased of late years, and as far back as 1837 the causes of it are thus stated in Dr Taylor's "Topography of Dacca":—"The repeal of the duties on the exportation of grain; the abolition of the Arcot currency, which had long pressed as a heavy burden on the agricultural classes, the Permanent Settlement, the rapid decline of manufactures, and the introduction of indigo and safflower as articles of produce for foreign markets, have all contributed to produce an extension of cultivation, and to raise the price of agricultural and common labour considerably above what it was in former times." According to the District Records, ordinary day labourers earned 7s. 6d. a month in 1837, bricklayers, 8s., and carpenters, 15s.; in 1862 the wages of ordinary labourers amounted to 10s. (?), bricklayers, 10s., and carpenters, 18s. per month. In 1871 the price of labour was as follows:—Day labourers from 10s. to 12s., blacksmiths, £1, goldsmiths, £1, 4s., bricklayers, £1, 4s., and carpenters, £1, 6s. per month.

Prices of food have now risen in proportion to the increased rate of wages. In 1823 common rice sold at 2s. 2d. a hundredweight; in 1838 it was as low as 1s. 9d; in 1850 it was 2s. 4½d. a hundredweight; in 1860, 4s. 10d.; and in 1862, 2s. 9d. a hundredweight. The Collector returns the prices in 1871 as under:—Best cleaned rice, 4s. 5d. a hundredweight; common quality, 3s. 9½d. a hundredweight; best unshelled rice, 2s. 4d. a hundredweight; common

quality ditto, 1s. 8d. a hundredweight; wheat, 6s. 2d. a hundredweight; indigo, £30 to £32 a hundredweight; molasses, 10s. 11d. (?) a hundredweight. During the famine of 1866 the price of the best kind of rice rose to 19s. 1d., and that of the coarser description to 13s. 7d. a hundredweight. The following price-current per hundredweight of the more important articles imported or produced in the District is compiled from a statement given at page 121 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division." It must be borne in mind that the figures refer to the year 1866 or 1867:—Jute, from 5s. 5d. to 6s. a hundredweight; linseed, 7s. 6d.; mustard-seed, 7s. 2d.; *til*-seed, 6s. 10d.; india-rubber, £4; stick lac, £1, 1s. 4d.; shell lac, £1, 14s. 4d.; seed lac, £1, 8s. 8d.; betel-nut, from 19s. 4d. to £1, 0s. 8d.; tobacco leaf, from 10s. 10½d. to £1, 1s. 9d.; turmeric, 14s. 8d.; cleaned cotton, £3; cotton with seed, £1, 0s. 4d.; dried chilies, 13s. 8½d.; mustard oil, £1, 8s. 8d.; gram, from 5s. to 5s. 9d.; *kalái*, 4s.; *mug*, 6s. 11d.; wheat, 7s. 4d.; barley, 6s. 8d.; Dacca soap, £1, 6s. 8d.; pepper, £1, 13s. 4d.; salt, 13s. 4d.; beeswax, from £5, 1s. to £6; zinc, £1, 16s. 8d.; tin, £4, 6s. 8d.; English iron, 13s. 4d.; Swedish iron, 18s. 8d.; copper, new, £6, 13s. 4d.; copper, old, £4, 13s. 4d.; gunny bags, from £1, 7s. to £1, 10s. per hundred; hides, from £12 to £15, 14s. per hundred.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The local measures of time are as follow:—60 *anupal* = 1 *pal*; 60 *pal* = 1 *danda*; 2½ *danda* = 1 *ghantá* (hour); 3 *ghantá* or 7½ *danda* = 1 *prahar*; 8 *prahar* = 1 *dibas*, day and night; 7 days = 1 *saptáha*; 15 days = 1 *paksha*; 365 days = 1 *batsar* or year. Gold, silver, spices, medicines, thread, and fine cloth are weighed by the following standard:—4 *dhán* = 1 *rati*; 8 *rati* = 1 *máshá*; 12 *máshá* = 1 *tolá*, equal to 180 grains troy weight. The weights for heavier substances are:—5 *tolá* = 1 *chhaták*; 16 *chhaták* = 1 *ser*; 5 *ser* = 1 *pasuri*; 8 *pasuri* = 1 *man* or *maund*, equal to 82 pounds avoirdupois. Land measure is as follows:—the short measures are called *anguli*, the breadth of a thumb; *háth*, 18 inches; and *nal*, a measure varying from 9 to 11¼ feet. A *rasi* is equal to 120 feet; a *káni* to 1 acre, 1 rood, and 18 perches; and a *khádá* to 5 acres, 2 roods, and 12 perches. Distance has no special local measurement, but is only expressed by the time taken in making a journey.

LANDLESS DAY-LABOURERS.—There is a tendency towards the growth of a distinct class of day-labourers in the District, who neither possess nor rent land. As land gets more scarce, a class

of day-labourers of this description naturally springs up. There is also a number of cultivators whose holdings are not sufficiently large for the support of their increasing families, and who hire themselves out as day-labourers to their wealthier neighbours in the harvest-time. This class of people, however, is not very largely employed. In the case of lands for which help is required in the ploughing, the necessary assistance is given by the co-operation of the neighbours, and not by means of hired labour. Agricultural day-labourers, called *krisháns*, are generally employed at reaping-time. When they are paid in produce, they receive a share of from one-eighth to one-fifth of the crop, according to the nature of their labour. In cases where seed and cattle are supplied by the cultivator, the land is let on what is termed *bhág*, or division tenure. When the crop is ripe it is cut by the *krisháns*, who receive their share for their labour, and the remainder is divided between the owner of the field and the person who supplied seed and ploughing cattle, with the labour up to the time of reaping. The proprietor of the land receives sometimes one-third and sometimes half of the crop after the *krisháns* have taken their share. This, however, may be considered rather as a sort of sub-letting than of cultivation by hired labour. Children are employed in the fields as soon as they are old enough to render assistance to their parents. Women's work is generally confined to the house, but the more elderly among them are occasionally employed in gathering safflower in the field. The case is otherwise, however, with the Buná and Koch women in the Bháwál tract, who are freely employed in field-work in the same manner as the men.

Spare Land.—There is not much spare land in the southern part of the District, but in the Bháwál Fiscal Division in the north the proportion of uncultivated land is very great. This is owing to the jungly character of that tract, and the sparseness of the population. The husbandmen dislike the toil of clearing jungle, but when that is done for them by the Tipperahs or Kochs, they occupy and cultivate the land, and in this manner cultivation in the northern part of the District is steadily increasing.

Land Tenures.—The tenures between the superior landlord and the cultivator are those known as *patní*, *shikmí*, *táluk*, *hawálá*, and *ijárá*, and their subordinate tenures. The *patní* tenure is distinguished from the rest, in so far as it becomes by law summarily saleable for arrears of rent twice in the year. *Shikmí* and *hawálá* are dependent

tenures of a permanent nature, and saleable. The *ijárá* tenure is a temporary lease. With regard to the greater part of the lands in Dacca, the superior landlords (*zamíndárs*) deal directly with the actual cultivators. The former collect the rents directly from the husbandmen, and pay the Government share themselves into the Collectorate. This District, therefore, differs considerably from the neighbouring ones of Bákarganj and Tipperah. The tenures are simple, and there are never more than two middlemen, the *tálukdár* and *ḥawáládár*. Nor does a tendency appear on the part of landlords to create an undue number of those under-tenures which exist elsewhere, and the absence of which tends to the good of the cultivators.

The foregoing is a very brief mention of the different classes of intermediate tenures in the District. It may be well, however, to reproduce the following paragraphs from Mr Clay's Report in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," as illustrating the growth of our land system and its many different tenures:—"Under the village system of the Hindus, deductions were made from the produce of land for the support of those who discharged the municipal functions of the community—as, for instance, the headman, the accountant, the village watchman, the schoolmaster, the Bráhman priest, astrologer, &c. The remainder was shared between the king and the cultivator, and the king's share was called *rájaswa*, which is now used to signify *revenue*. This royal share was received in kind or money; and the village headman, who transacted all the business of the community with the Government, was responsible for its regular payment. The collection was probably attended with little difficulty, the king being regarded with superstitious veneration as a supernatural being, from whom the rayat would as soon have thought of withholding his dues as of omitting his daily *pújá* to the gods.

"With the conquest of the country by the Muhammadans, changes were introduced into the system of collection. Officers, removable at will, were appointed to realise the Government demand from the cultivators; retaining for their own benefit any surplus that they were able to exact. These officers were called *zamíndárs*, and appear to have been, as a rule, a rapacious and extortionate class. Enjoying often but a short term of office, they made it their first object to amass as much wealth as possible before giving over charge to the next collector, and under various pretences made exorbitant and extraordinary demands, which came to be known as *abwáb*, *mathaut*,

nazar, &c. The cultivators on their part endeavoured, by every means in their power, to evade payment of rent, and, being hopeless of profit, made no endeavour to improve their lands, but rather tried to keep the cultivation as low as possible.

"When the British Government assumed the *diwání*, they found a system of short-term settlements prevailing, the pernicious effects of which soon became apparent. They found the *zamíndár* in receipt of rent from the cultivators, and occupying in many respects the position of a landlord; it was therefore decided that he was the person to whom Government should look for payment of the land revenue. After much deliberation, the famous Decennial Settlement was drawn up, and, with the sanction of the Court of Directors, was eventually made permanent. Rightly or wrongly, the effect of the revenue system enacted by the Regulations of 1793 has undoubtedly been to constitute the *zamíndár*, to all intents and purposes, a landed proprietor, subject only to the periodical payment of a fixed amount to Government. Any discussion of that much-vexed question, the justice or injustice of the Permanent Settlement, would here be out of place. It is sufficient to observe that, in a financial and fiscal point of view, it was undoubtedly superior to the former system of short settlements, as creating a feeling of security among the landlords, and offering every inducement to extension of cultivation and improvement of estates. The Decennial Settlement was commenced in this District in the year 1791, and was completed in 1794.

"There are no large landed estates (*zamíndárís*) in the District. The largest pays an annual revenue of less than £1500; and there are only four whose revenue exceeds £1000. Of estates on the rent-roll, the number paying revenue of one rupee and under is more than one-tenth of the whole. This is accounted for by the fact that the bulk of the people in the District were in former times public servants, who received small grants of land from Government, or from the *zamíndárs*, or superior *tálukdárs*, seldom for money paid but for services rendered. At the Decennial Settlement they had their lands separately assessed, and formed into separate estates. These are called *khárijá huzúrí*, or independent *táluks*. There are also numerous dependent *táluks* which pay rent or revenue to, or through, the *zamíndárs* and independent *tálukdárs*. An independent *khárijá* or *huzúrí táluk* is land which once formed part of a *zamíndárí*, but has since been separated, and formed into an estate paying

revenue direct to Government. A dependent, or *shámilát táluk*, is land paying revenue through the proprietor of another, the parent estate. A *hawálá* is a tenure of a permanent, hereditary, and transferable nature, subordinate to a dependent *táluk*, and paying rent to the holder thereof. There are a few *nim-hawálás*, or tenures subordinate to *hawálás*, held under nearly the same conditions as the *hawálás* themselves.

"Dependent or *shámilát táluks* are of several denominations, and confer different rights, according to the terms of the deed creating them. A *shikmí táluk* confers a permanent and immutable right of tenure. It is hereditary and transferable, and not liable to variation of rent. A *maurúsí táluk* is hereditary, but not necessarily otherwise transferable. Its rent is liable to variation or not, according to the terms of the original deed. A *mushakashí táluk* is held at a fixed rental, and is hereditary, but not otherwise transferable. *Pattá-i táluks* are tenures held under leases granted by the *zamíndár* or superior landholder. They are not transferable, except by succession, are liable to variation of rent, in the absence from the agreement of any provision to the contrary. The *zamíndár* can resume these tenures on failure of heirs. *Jangalburí tálukdárs* are those who hold land on condition of clearing it of jungle; they have the same rights as the *zamíndárs* in whose estate they are included. *Zar-kharíd tálukdárs* may be mentioned, but they are very rare.

"The following rent-free tenures exist:—*nafarán* and *nánkár*, or lands given to slaves and servants for their maintenance; *chákrán*, lands given to servants as wages; *páikán*, lands given to *páiks* or armed retainers; *debottar*, lands given for the service of the gods; and *brahmottar*, or lands given to Bráhmans or priests on occasions of religious ceremonies. *Pírán* and *chirágán* are lands given to *pírs* or Muhammadan saints, and to defray the expense of illuminating mosques.

"The Regulations of 1793 recognised two classes of cultivators—*khúdkásht* and *páikásht*; the former cultivated lands in their own village, and were called resident cultivators. They could not be ejected, even by a purchaser at a sale for arrears of revenue; but their rent was liable to enhancement, unless they could prove that the rate had been unchanged for more than twelve years before the Permanent Settlement. *Páikásht* rayats, or non-resident cultivators, were mere tenants-at-will, and could be ejected at any time; their rents were of course liable to enhancement. Act X. of 1859 has

abolished these distinctions, and cultivators are now divided into three classes, viz., first, cultivators entitled to hold at fixed rates; second, cultivators with rights of occupancy; third, tenants-at-will."

The Census Report gives the following as the number of persons who derive their living from the soil:—Superior landlords (*zamíndárs*), 1970; large leaseholders (*ijárádárs*), 57; holders of rent-free tenures (*lákhirájdárs*), 57; subordinate landlords (*tálukdárs*), 9333; holders of permanent tenures at a fixed rate of rent (*patnídárs*), 77; cultivators, 280,698; small leaseholders with permanent rights (*hawáládárs*), 1; land stewards or managers (*gumáshtás*), 41; rent collectors (*tahsíldárs*), 2566; village accountants (*patwáris*), 266; holders of lands on a tenure of military service (*páiks*), 56; *zamíndárí* servants, 394; *dafádárs*, 8; *díwáns*, 30; village headmen, 96; managers of estates (*náibs*), 6; total, 295,656. This list only gives those who derive their sole income from land. Nearly every one in the District has a patch of ground, which he either cultivates himself or by means of hired labour. [*See also my Chapter on Tenures at the end of this volume.*]

RATES OF RENT.—The cultivated land in the District may be said to be divided into three classes, namely, (1) *boro* land, in which only rice grows, and the rent of which varies from 1s. 10½d. to 4s. 6d. an acre; (3) *áus* land, on which the autumn rice crop is raised, fetches from 3s. to 6s. an acre; (3) *áman* land, for the cultivation of winter rice, and also suited for the best kinds of crops, is the most valuable description of land in the District, and is assessed at from 4s. 6d. to 9s. an acre. Exceptionally good rice land sometimes rents as high as 12s. an acre.

A cultivator who constructs raised homestead lands (*bhiti*) is charged no rent for three years. Sugar-cane, cotton, safflower, and indigo lands are let at rates which vary in different parts of the country. The rent of *áman* land for sugar-cane cultivation is generally 25 or 30 per cent. more than if it were used for rice cultivation. Lands producing two crops in the year are assessed at about one-fifth more rent than land which only bears one crop; but when any of the more valuable products, such as safflower or cotton, constitute the second crop, the rate is about one-third more. The changes produced on the soil by the rivers occasion a corresponding alteration in the value of the land.

In 1872, the Collector reported to the Bengal Government the rates of rent of lands producing the principal crops in different parts

of the District to be as follows. They substantially agree with the returns furnished to me by the Collector in the previous year :—

LIST OF RATES PREVAILING IN THE DISTRICT OF DACCA.

Division of District.	Description of Land.	Rate per Standard Bighá. Max.	Rate per Standard Bighá. Min.	Rate per Acre. Max.	Rate per Acre. Min.	Remarks.
		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	
North, ...	High rice land, including sugar-cane,	1 9 0	0 4 0	4 11 0	0 12 0	
	Low rice land,	1 11 0	0 4 0	5 1 0	0 12 0	The average rates of the north of the District were got by taking the rates of 535 villages— AS. P. High rice land, 12 6 Low rice land, 12 0 Jute, &c., 11 6
	Rice and jute, mustard, safflower, &c.,	2 0 0	0 2 0	6 0 0	0 6 0	
South, ...	High rice land, one crop,	0 8 0	0 6 0	1 8 0	1 2 0	There is not much of this land.
	Low rice land, ditto,	0 11 0	0 6 0	1 5 0	1 2 0	
	Rice or jute land, mustard, and cold-weather crops,	1 0 0	0 12 0	3 0 0	2 4 0	
	Date-tree land,	2 8 0	1 8 0	7 8 0	4 8 0	
	Garden land,	3 0 0	2 0 0	9 0 0	6 0 0	
East, ...	High rice land—sugar-cane and jute,	0 15 2	0 13 3	2 13 6	2 7 9	This is the richest land in the District, but held by petty landlords, and in many shares.
	Low rice land,	0 15 2	0 11 4	2 13 6	2 2 0	
West, ...	High rice land—jute and cold-weather crops,	0 12 0	0 7 6	2 4 0	1 6 6	
	Low rice land,	0 10 0	0 8 0	1 14 0	1 8 0	The low land is more uniform in quality than the high, hence rates vary less.

No Records exist showing the old rates of rent for the different descriptions of land in the various Fiscal Divisions, and the Collector has been unable to ascertain the rate which prevailed before the Permanent Settlement. The Land Law of Bengal, Act X. of 1859, has been very little worked in this District, and has not resulted in any general enhancement of rents. Rents, however, have generally increased amicably, and without any reference to the Courts; and it is only in cases where there was previous bad feeling between the landlord and tenant, or where the landlord demanded too great or too sudden a rise, that Act X. was resorted to. The Collector is of opinion that the general rise of rents since this Land Law was introduced is about 50 per cent. above the old rates, but this increase has almost entirely taken place since 1866. The statistics of a village in which the rates were contested are as follow: —*bhiti* land, former rate 7s. 6d. an acre, enhanced rate 8s. an acre;

paddy land, formerly 3s. 4½d., 3s., and 2s. 9¼d. an acre, enhanced rate 4s. 3½d. an acre; grass land, former rate 4s. 6d. an acre, enhanced rate 6s. 4½d. an acre.

MANURE is not generally used in the District, and for rice land not at all. A little is used for sugar-cane where the soil is poor, the quantity depending upon the nature of the ground. It is impossible to estimate the cost of manuring an acre of land, for such a thing as the sale of manure is unknown. It simply consists of cow-dung burned. Mustard oil-cake, however, is sometimes used as a manure in the *pán* gardens of Sonárgáon; and in Bikrampur, plantains are manured with the bedding and refuse of cow-houses, and the vegetable or alluvial matter found on the sides of ditches. A weed called *páná*, which grows luxuriantly on the surface of morasses, is sometimes used to manure the roots of betel and cocoa-nut trees. The usual method of enriching ordinary rice land is by burning the weeds and stubble, and sprinkling the ash over the field.

IRRIGATION is only practised to a small extent in the north of the District for rice-fields. The process is as follows:—A small ridge of earth is constructed round the field, and the water is raised by means of a long wooden trough called a *don*. The cost is almost nothing, and consists only of the value of the trough, say eighteen pence or two shillings, and a very small amount of labour expended. Wells are never used for purposes of irrigation. In the southern part of the District, where the demand for land is severe, fields are seldom allowed to remain fallow; but in the northern tract the practice of allowing land to remain fallow and recruit itself exists, although not to any great extent. In this part, if a field is kept continually under cultivation for three or four years, it is generally allowed to remain untilled for one year. Rotation of crops is not practised.

NATURAL CALAMITIES, such as blight, drought, and flood, are common to the District. As causes of blight, two species of caterpillar are very destructive to the rice crop, one feeding on the ears, and the other on the leaves of the plant. There is also a small dark-coloured beetle which commits serious injury. This insect appears suddenly, and generally in large flights; it destroys the grain by squeezing out the milky juice with its fore-arms, leaving the husk empty and flattened. Locusts are rare, and almost unknown to the peasants; however, they made their appearance in the District

in 1866, but did not do much harm. Blights have not occurred on a sufficiently large scale, within the memory of the present generation, as to affect the general harvest of the District. Land crabs commit mischief among the crops by cutting the stalks of the plants, and Dr Taylor records that in 1791 the Fiscal Division of Bozargomedpur and its vicinity suffered so much from this cause, that the payment of revenue to the extent of £4226 was suspended by Government. Hailstorms occasionally do great harm to the summer rice crop; and such is the dread of them, that, according to Dr Taylor, a class of persons find a livelihood by pretending to protect the fields from their effects. A similar class of magicians exist in Central India.

Floods occasionally do serious harm to the crops, and sometimes give rise to great distress among the people. They are caused by heavy rainfalls early in the season, as well as by the rising of the rivers before they enter the District. In 1787–88 a terrible inundation occurred, and was succeeded by the severest famine. The following brief account of the calamity is condensed from Dr Taylor's "Topography of Dacca:"—The rains set in early in the month of March, and continued incessantly up to the middle of July, when the rivers rose to an unprecedented height, and inundated the whole of the country to an extent never remembered before. The streets of Dacca, which in ordinary seasons of inundation are several feet above the highest level of the rivers, were submerged to a depth sufficient to admit of boats sailing along them, while throughout the country the inhabitants were obliged to quit their huts and betake themselves to rafts or raised stages of bamboos. In July the supplies of grain in the city became scanty, and the ruin of the early crops, with the unfavourable prospects of the winter harvest, had the effect of raising the price of provisions from three to four hundred per cent. higher than that of ordinary seasons. The famine reached its height in April 1788, when in many parts of the District there was scarcely any rice procurable, even at the price of threepence a pound. Between nine and ten thousand persons were fed daily by public contribution, but numbers died of starvation. It is estimated that sixty thousand persons perished during the inundation and subsequent famine. The loss of property occasioned by this calamity was very great. The landlords were unable to pay their revenues, and subsequently, from the loss of cultivators and cattle, their lands remained untilled for a considerable time. Several Fiscal Divisions were deprived of three-fourths of their inhabitants, who

either died or emigrated, and the lands were in consequence soon overrun with jungle and infested with wild beasts. Again, in 1833 or 1834, the people say there was a great flood in the District, and that it swept away a large number of animals and destroyed the crops. No account of this inundation, however, is to be found in the District Records. In 1870, also, the water rose very high, and caused considerable destruction to the low-lying lands; but owing to the influences of trade, the good crop in parts which were not reached by the flood, and the abundant cold-weather harvest which followed, there was not much distress among the people. No embankments exist in the District, and the Collector does not think there is any necessity for the construction of such protective works. A regular inundation occurs in consequence of the low character of the deltas of the Ganges, the Jamuná, and the Meghná, of which this District is a portion.

DROUGHTS may arise from the absence of local rainfall, as in 1865. Sometimes the rains set in too late in the season, so that the husbandmen cannot plant their fields at the usual time, and the young shoots are inundated by the rising of the rivers before they are strong enough to withstand it. They cannot force their heads above the water, and so die. At other times the rains cease too early, in consequence of which the *áman* paddy is parched up, and the winter crop fails. Drought, however, unless it is very excessive, is here generally productive of less serious consequences than inundation. The drought of 1865, which preceded the famine of that year, is well remembered in Dacca; but it was not so severe, nor was the distress so great, as in other Districts. No other case of scarcity from drought is spoken of as having occurred within the memory of the present generation. No means are adopted as safeguards against drought. The Collector states that there is a demand in the District for canals for the purposes of internal communication, but not for irrigation. In his opinion, the construction of irrigation canals would present considerable engineering difficulties; and, besides, droughts occur so seldom, that the expense of making them would be thrown away.

COMPENSATING INFLUENCES IN FLOODS AND DROUGHTS.—The proportion of cultivable high to cultivable low lands in the District is but small, and although it is true that in flood years the high lands produce heavier crops than ordinarily, they do not yield so large an out-turn as to compensate for the loss on the lower levels.

Again, in cases of drought, the marshy lands not ordinarily cultivated might yield crops if brought under tillage, but generally it is too late to do this, and even then they would not compensate for the loss in other quarters. Dacca does not maintain its population with its own produce, but depends in a great measure on Maimansinh, Silhet, Tipperah, and Bákarganj for food-importations, and so long as these Districts are safe, there is little fear for Dacca. As an example of this, the Collector mentions that although half the crops of the District failed owing to the flood of 1870, the price of rice the following year was less than it was before the inundation. That gentleman considers that, owing to the increased and improved means of communication, a local famine in Eastern Bengal is now impossible. He states that, with the exception of the year 1866-67, he can find no year previous to 1870 in which a flood, drought or blight, exercised any marked influence on prices within the present century.

FAMINE WARNINGS.—During the height of the famine of 1866-67 the maximum price of grain was, for best cleaned rice, 19s. 1d. a hundredweight, for common rice 13s. 7d. a hundredweight, and for paddy 6s. 9d. a hundredweight. In 1864, before the famine, paddy sold at 2s. 4d. a hundredweight, which is about the same as the present rate; prices have therefore now returned to what they were before the famine. In 1866 the Government undertook no relief operations in the District, nor, in the opinion of the Collector, were any such operations required. Ordinary rice was then 13s. 7d. a hundredweight, and no doubt a few people did die of actual famine, and still more of diseases induced by privation, but the Collector does not consider that the state of things in Dacca ever reached a point at which the interference of Government was necessary. There was great distress no doubt, but Government relief is so extraordinary a measure, and affects the whole country so seriously, that the Collector did not think that the point at which state relief becomes necessary was reached. In his opinion, there would have been but comparatively little distress had the price of common rice not risen higher than 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. Famine rates, the Collector thinks, were just reached in 1866, and rice at 13s. 7d. a hundredweight might be taken as the highest rate then. But the peasantry, as a rule, have now become richer than they were in 1866, and he believes that at present rice at 16s. a hundredweight would represent what 13s. 7d. did then. It

is hard to say exactly what should be considered as a warning of famine in Dacca, because the experience of 1870 shows that the crops of the District itself have but little to do with the price of food. The best warning would be a threatened scarcity in Bákarganj, Silhet, Maimansinh, and Tipperah. The chief crop grown within the Dacca District is the *áman* rice, and no *áus* crop, however good, would compensate for its loss. If the price of rice in January or February, soon after the winter harvest, were to go up to 8s. a hundredweight, it would, in the opinion of the Collector, be a distinct warning of famine later in the year. The means at the disposal of the District are ample to avert the extremity of famine. The communication within the District itself is not good, but its water communication with other parts of the country is perfect. The crop of Maimansinh can come to Dacca by the Jamuná, Bansí, Lakhmiá, and Meghná rivers; that of Silhet and Tipperah by the Meghná; that of Bákarganj by the Meghná and Ariál Khán; that of the north-west by the Ganges; while Calcutta can send supplies by means of the Eastern Bengal Railway. A famine such as that which occurred in Orissa is all but impossible in Dacca at the present day.

Foreign and Absentee Landholders.—The principal European landlord in the District is Mr J. P. Wise, who is the proprietor of several indigo factories and estates (*zamíndáris*). A Mr D. Dombal also owns a factory, and some smaller landed estates (*táluks*). As the names of proprietors are not invariably registered when lands or estates change hands, it is not possible to ascertain from the Register the number of Musalmán proprietors, and the amount of revenue paid by them. Speaking roughly, the Collector is of opinion that about one-fourth of the landed proprietors of the District are Muhammadans, paying a Government revenue of £5637. The most important and wealthiest Musalmán proprietor is Khwájá Abdul Ganí. The principal absentee landlord of the District is Díwán Iláhí Niwáz of Maimansinh. The other large proprietors are all natives and residents of the District, and no large proportion of land is owned by absentee landlords.

Roads and Means of Communication.—There is but one important road under the supervision of the Public Works Department in the whole District. It extends from the suspension bridge over the Dolái Khál to Baidyá Bázár on the west bank of the Meghná, a distance of sixteen miles, and forms a part of the main route which

connects Dacca and Chittagong *viâ* Dáúdkándí and Kumillá. It has also a branch leading from the main road to the landing-place at Náráinganj. From Dacca to Náráinganj the road is metalled, but the rest of its course is only an ordinary unmetalled country road. Along this road there are two ferries to cross and six bridges of solid brick-work, all very old, but in good preservation. The average annual cost of its maintenance and repairs amounts to about £190. The roads in the District under local management are as follow:—(1) The most important is the road from Dacca city, which runs northward throughout the whole of the Bháwál jungles to a point on the Lakhmiá river near Tok, a distance of forty-five miles. From this point the road is carried on to the Civil Station of Maimansinh. The country through which it passes is mostly dry and elevated, and therefore readily passable at all seasons of the year. The Collector in 1872 reported that this and the foregoing road were the only ones, outside the town, which were fit for wheeled traffic. The road is unmetalled, but is said to be better than many metalled country roads, owing to the soil being for the most part hard red clay. About £200 are annually spent on its ordinary repairs, besides from £50 to £100 for constructing masonry bridges, which are being gradually substituted for wooden ones. The Tungí bridge over the Bálu Creek on this river is worthy of notice. It is a solid structure of masonry and stone-work, flanked with turrets at the approaches on each side, and distant about fourteen miles to the north of the city. It has three arches, the centre one of which was blown up by Mr Carnac, the Magistrate during the mutiny. The breach, however, has been repaired with timber, and the bridge is in full use. It is stated to have been constructed during the time of the Muhammadans, but there is some doubt as to the exact period of its erection. (2) A road from the subdivisional station of Munshiganj to Srínagar, a distance of about sixteen miles. This road is only partially bridged, and is very expensive, owing to the friable nature of the soil. Up to 1871 it had cost not less than £300 a year, and was then little more than a footpath. This road has a branch about a mile and a half long leading to Jaunsár, constructed at the expense of the late Small Cause Court Judge at that place, and costing about £10 a year in repairs. (3) A road leading from the Subdivisional Head Quarters of Mánikganj to the town of the same name, situated on the west bank of the Dhaleswarí. This road is about two miles long,

and costs only a trifling sum annually for repairs. (4) A road from Keráníganj opposite Dacca to Kolátiá, seven miles on the way towards Mánikganj. Hitherto this has been a mere unbridged path, but it will form the basis of an intended road to Goálanda on the Ganges, the present terminus of the Eastern Bengal Railway. (5) The Lonsinh road in the police section of Mulfatganj. This is a short line made by private parties; about £10 a year are spent in keeping it up. (6) Another private road has been constructed by Bábu Kálí Náráyan Chaudhrí, a rich landholder of Bháwál, from the Maimansinh road about eight miles north of Tungí, to Jaidebpur, his place of residence. This road is kept in excellent order by the above-named gentlemen. With the exception of the line from Dacca to Náráinganj, none of these roads are used to any great extent for purposes of traffic, nor have any large markets sprung up upon their route. The Collector believes that there is not a single cart in the rural parts of the District, as boats are the only means of traffic, and new markets are founded on the banks of rivers and streams, not upon roads. The line of telegraph from Dacca to Chittagong was commenced in December 1858, and completed about the end of the following year. There is no railway in the District, and only one canal on which toll is levied, namely the Dolái Khál, extending from the town of Dacca to Trimohiní on the Bálu Creek, *en route* to Demrá. This canal was opened on the 4th May 1864, and the levy of toll commenced from April 1867. This toll is levied as long as the canal remains open for boats of above two tons burden; that is, up to November, when the toll is suspended and renewed the following April, when the *khál* again becomes navigable. The toll levied is at the rate of threepence per four tons burden on all boats of two tons burden or upwards. The canal is intended to meet the requirements of the traffic to and from the eastern Districts; it runs through low marshy country, and no villages of any importance exist on its banks.

MINES.—There are no mines or quarries or precious stones found in the District, nor is any gold-washing carried on in the beds of the rivers. The only mineral yet found is iron ore, which occurs in masses and nodules in the red soil of the northern tract, and lies on the surface. Formerly iron was smelted from the soil, but the quantity obtained was probably not large, and the manufacture would not pay now. The metal was also said to have been of an inferior quality. The locality of the smelting furnaces is indicated by the

heaps of slag or refuse still found near Jaidebpur in Bháwál, and now used as a top-dressing for the city roads.

MANUFACTURES.—The principal manufactures of the District are cotton weaving, embroidery, silver-work, shell-work, and pottery.

WEAVING.—The following account of this manufacture is extracted from p. 29 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division;" the present Collector of the District reports it to be trustworthy and correct:—"Since the almost total annihilation of the once flourishing trade in Dacca muslins, the manufactures of the town have become comparatively insignificant. The muslin trade is now estimated to be less than a fourth of what it used to be in former days. Dr Taylor says that some thirty-six different kinds of cloth were manufactured in the District, the bulk of which was made of English twist, country thread being used for the very finest muslins only. Those of the most delicate texture were known by the names of *áb-rawán* or 'running water,' and *shabnam* or 'evening dew,' from the fact of their being, when wet, almost undistinguishable from these liquids. It is said that in the time of Jahángír, a piece of *áb-rawan* muslin could be manufactured fifteen feet by three, and weighing only five *sikkás* or nine hundred grains, the price of which was £40. The finest that can be made in the present day (1840), of the above dimensions, weighs about nine *sikkás*, or one thousand six hundred grains, and is sold for £10. Since Dr Taylor wrote, the manufacture has greatly fallen off, and these finer kinds are not now made, except to order." The process of weaving is as follows:—"The weaver erects his loom under a shed, or the roof of his own house. To admit light the hut is open on all sides; a pit is dug in the floor to give room for the lower part of the gear and the weaver's legs as he sits at work; and above the loom, a canopy of mats is erected to protect the web from dust and rain dropping from the roof. The number of implements used in converting the raw material into thread, and weaving the latter into the finest muslin, is said to amount to 126. They are all made of small pieces of bamboo or reed, tied together with twine or thread; and the style of their construction is so rude, that every weaver can make them for himself. To save time, however, they are usually bought ready-made in the bázár. The thread is dressed with starch made of parched rice, and after being exposed to the sun for some time, is wound off upon two small wheels, which are held by the weaver in each hand as he forms the warp. This is done between four bamboo stakes driven into the ground. A comb is used to

separate the threads of the warp, every alternate thread of which passes through a corresponding loop of a thread chain which is connected with the gear above and the treadles below. There are two of these chains of thread loops, which are attached one to each treadle, by means of which the threads of the warp are alternately raised and depressed, to allow the shuttle to pass between them. This latter is not so sharp pointed as the English shuttle, and instead of there being a fixed bobbin inside, the thread of the woof is wound upon a small piece of reed which revolves upon an iron pin. The most favourable time for weaving fine muslins is during the rains, when the moisture of the air prevents the thread from breaking. In dry, hot weather, while weaving the finest fabrics, it is necessary to keep shallow vessels of water beneath the web, the evaporation from which keeps the warp moist. The weavers are mostly Hindus." The finest species of muslins are made without any pattern, but spotted muslins, both white and coloured, are extensively made. The patterns are embroidered afterwards by hand, and some of the stars, sprigs of flowers, &c., are very pretty. Coarse cloth is woven all over the District by Jogís, but is not worthy of any special notice. The following is chiefly condensed from Taylor and Clay.

EMBROIDERY.—This art is chiefly practised by the Musalmáns, who carry it to a high pitch of excellence, and who display a dexterity in the use of the needle fully equal to that of the Hindus at the spindle and loom. The trade is now said to be in the hands of a few people, and the work is mostly done to order. *Rifugárs*, or darners, are persons employed to repair muslins that have been injured during bleaching, and also to mark and form the headings of cloths with gold and silver thread. An expert person of this class can remove a thread the whole length of a web of muslin, and replace it with one of a similar quality. Although the demand for fine flowered muslins has almost died away, there is still a tolerably brisk business in a description of cloth called *kasidá* or cloths flowered with *mugá* or *tasar* silk. These cloths, principally made of English twist, have the pattern of the flower or ornament which is intended to be worked stamped upon them with a red dye by a class of workmen called *chipigárs*. They are then distributed to the embroiderers, who are supplied with silk for the purpose, and occasionally with an advance of money. Such *kasidás* are exported by Arab merchants to Persia, Egypt, and Turkey, where they are chiefly used as turbans. In Dr Taylor's time about twenty thousand pieces

of this cloth were annually worked in Dacca. The patterns used in the embroidery of tablecloths are generally flower scrolls, and are most beautifully worked. With regard to other branches of embroidery, but which are not now generally practised, the following is mentioned in Taylor's "Topography of Dacca:"—"The flowering of muslin dresses is performed by a set of embroiderers called *chákañḍás*, and the embroidering of muslins, scarfs, and shawls with silk by workmen called *zardárs*. The latter description of work is highly esteemed in Europe, and was (1840) in a much more flourishing condition than any other kind of Dacca manufacture. The scarfs and shawls are imported from Calcutta, and are worked to order, chiefly for transmission to England. In 1839 about a thousand were manufactured. The principal embroiderers are Musalmán women of the lower classes, and the wives of *dhobás* (washermen), who are glad to devote what spare time they have to earning a little money this way." This industry has also declined.

Gold and Silver Work.—The Dacca workmen are expert in all filagree-work, and also make bracelets, neck chains, ear and nose rings, and other ornaments, which are exported to different parts of the country, but are not equal either to the similar manufacture of Cattack or Bánkurá. They can imitate any pattern, but are quite unable to make a plain polished surface. Gold and silver are sold by the *tolá* (180 grains troy). There is no fixed charge for workmanship, which varies according to the nature of the article manufactured, and the amount of work bestowed upon it. For plain work, from 7½d. to 9d. per *tolá* is the usual charge.

Shell-Work.—The following account of this branch of industry is compiled in an abbreviated form from Mr Clay's account in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division":—The manufacture of shell bracelets forms an important branch of industry in the city. About four hundred or five hundred shell-cutters, who all reside in one bázár, form a very industrious and hard-working community. There are several distinct operations in the making of these bracelets. The shells are first prepared for the saw by having the points knocked off with a hammer; they are then sawn into rings, afterwards polished, and then carved, coloured, or left plain, as the case may be. Some of the more elaborate bracelets are made of several rings beautifully joined together, neatly engraved with different devices, and brilliantly coloured. The sawyer sits on the ground, and jams the shell on which he is working between his foot and a stump of

wood fixed in the floor. The saw used is shaped like an arc of a circle; it has no teeth, but the lower edge is notched; the [illegible] being oiled to make it cut freely. The shells from which these bracelets are made are univalves; they are brought up to Calcutta by vessels from the Maldives, Ceylon, and the Madras coast, where they have been purchased by men sent from Dacca. About £5000 are annually spent by Dacca merchants in the purchase of such shells. The following are the varieties of univalves from which the bracelets are made:—*Titkauri sankhá*, a valuable shell which comes from Ceylon, and costs 16s. a hundred; *páti*, another shell from Ceylon, which comes from Adam's Bridge, a line of sunken reefs between Ceylon and the extremity of the Indian peninsula, and which also sells at 16s. a hundred; *dhallá* shells sell from 8s. the hundred; *jaházi sankhá*, from 12s. the hundred; *garbaki* shells, from the Madras coast, sell for 7s. the hundred. Three kinds of very valuable shells from Bombay are also met with, the *surti*, *doáná páti*, and *álá-bilá*. The first description costs 30s. the hundred, and the other two £2, 10s. the hundred. These shells are sold in large quantities in the city, and at all the great annual fairs, and form a favourite ornament of the Hindu women. They are sold by the pair; plain white rings fetching from 1s. to 4s., 6s., or 8s., while carved or coloured bracelets sell for as much as £1, or £1, 4s. the pair.

Pottery.—This is extensively manufactured all over the District. The soil is well adapted for pottery, and common articles are made in large quantities. The old patterns are still adhered to. The wheel is now universally used in this manufacture, although this was not the custom formerly. The other principal branches of industry in the city and District are boat-building, the manufacture of mustard and other oils, soap, paper, &c. Muslin and fine cotton cloths are bleached by steeping them in a vessel of soap and water, after which they are wrung out and spread upon a smooth field. When dry they are put into an earthen vessel, and cautiously boiled. They are allowed to remain in the boiler for one night, and next day they are beaten upon the washerman's board, and then spread out to dry. This alternate process of boiling and bleaching is repeated four or five times; the last time with the addition of diluted lime-juice.

Condition of the Manufacturing Classes.—The condition of the gold and silver smiths and shell-workers is, as a rule, decidedly comfortable. They labour in their own houses on their own account,

and generally a father and his sons, or two or more brothers, work together in partnership. Hired labour is also employed, but no well-marked distinction between labour and capital has taken place in either of these trades. The same remarks apply also to the potters, although they are not generally so well-off as the above-named classes. It is totally different, however, with regard to a large part of the weaving community in the city. Here there is a decided distinction between capital and labour. Although it cannot be said that there are now no weavers who work in their own houses and on their own account, as was the case in former times, yet there are a very great number who, although working in their own houses, manufacture the cloth on account of merchants and traders (*mahájans*). These remarks apply even more forcibly to the embroidery trade, which is almost entirely carried on by means of hired labour, and by a system of advances. The custom is to keep the worker continually in the merchant's debt, and thus ensure the work being done cheaply. This is more particularly the case in the *kasidá* trade, in which advances are made very extensively. Although there is no manufacture in the District which has absolutely died out, the muslin and cotton cloth trade has nearly become extinct, as the following figures, showing the value of cotton goods which passed as exports through the Dacca Custom-house in different years between 1817, when the English Commercial Residency was abolished, and 1835, will show:—In 1817–18 they amounted to £152,497; in 1825–26 they had fallen to £62,918; in 1829–30 to £50,488; and in 1834–35 to £38,712. Since then they have dwindled almost to nothing. A class of people called *nafar* or *ghulám*, literally bondsmen, are common in the District, but they are not attached to any kind of manufacture, and, beyond the name, are now perfectly free.

Commerce and Trade.—The list of large towns and seats of commerce has been already given, but the following is a more detailed statement of the various articles of import and export. The principal exports consist of *kasidás* and embroidered cloths and muslins, sent to Bassarah and Jedda, from whence they are re-exported to Egypt and Turkey; indigo, safflower, and jute to Calcutta; otter-skins to China; hides to Calcutta; betel-nuts to Rangpur, Assam, Arákán, and Pegu; cheese and preserved fruits to the Lower Provinces and to Jedda and Bassarah; chilies and onions to Chittagong; and soap, shell bracelets, and copper utensils to different parts of the country. The articles received in exchange consist of European piece goods

and cotton thread, rice, tobacco, timber, salt, silk, brass and iron utensils, &c. The towns of Dacca and Náráinganj are also marts for the produce of the surrounding Districts; grain and oil-seeds are imported from Silhet, Maimansinh, and Tipperah, chiefly to Náráinganj, for transmission to other parts of the country. The District trade is almost entirely carried on in the towns, or in markets held on fixed days at the villages. A large annual commercial fair is held at Munshíganj, which commences at the full moon of the month of Kártik (falling within October or November), and usually lasts about three weeks. The majority of dealers and manufacturers who occupy booths come from the city and District of Dacca, but a few arrive from more remote parts, such as cloth and brocade merchants from Amritsar, dealers from Delhi, Maghs from Arákán who bring catechu and other commodities for sale, &c. Bamboos are brought from Silhet, and Sundrí wood from the Sundarbans. Nearly all goods, European or native, which are in general demand may be procured at this fair. A police force is always specially told off to keep order. Although the number of people that attend this gathering has never been correctly ascertained, the lowest estimate puts it down at fifty thousand. Other fairs are held in the District at Nángalband, Dhámrái, and Mánikganj, but they are principally for religious purposes, and although a little trade is carried on, it is only in petty articles such as people attending a fair are likely to buy, and does not affect the commerce of the District to any appreciable extent. With the exception of a few Musalmáns and Christians, all the merchants are Hindus. Those that belong to the city, export their goods to Calcutta; and those who are natives of the Upper Provinces, carry on a traffic with that part of the country by means of the Ganges. The cloth merchants repair to Calcutta in November to dispose of their investments to the masters of Arab ships. A good deal of petty trade is carried on by small joint-stock companies, consisting of a number of individuals to whom the merchandise belongs, and also of the owners and crews of the boats, who instead of wages receive a certain share of the profit of the speculation. Formerly, in its palmy days, Dacca was a District in which the export of manufactured articles, consisting chiefly of muslins, greatly exceeded the imports in value, particularly as at that time, although the population was smaller, the land under rice-cultivation was quite as large, if not larger than at present, and consequently food-grains were not an article of import. Latterly the

muslin trade has declined year by year, and the District has grown poor; population has increased at the same time, and rice had to be imported, rendering the balance of trade against the District. The development, or rather the introduction, of jute, safflower, and oil-seeds as articles of cultivation, and the rapid extension of the two former of late-years, has again turned the scale, and the Collector states that at the present time there is no doubt that the balance of trade is in favour of the District. The bank operations during the jute season show this most decidedly, and the increased prosperity of the cultivators proves that their land is profitable. The change practically amounts to this, that formerly the District was rich from a trade which required an outlet such as the Court at Delhi afforded, for the fine Dacca muslin is practically useless for any European purposes; while at the present day the District is making its fortune by jute and other crops for the European market.

CAPITAL.—Accumulations of capital are hoarded to a great extent; but not so much as formerly, some of the richer class of traders (*sháhás*) having now become very considerable landholders. Among several of the cultivating classes accumulations of money are employed in trade; but as a rule they are either hoarded and buried in the earth, or are laid out in jewellery, which, from the readiness with which it can be pawned, is almost as good as cash. The rates of interest charged for loans vary greatly; but the following may only be taken as a carefully-ascertained average. In small transactions, when the borrower pawns some article such as ornaments or household vessels equal to the sum lent, the nominal rate of interest is one shilling and threepence in the pound per mensem, or 75 per cent. per annum. This is an enormous rate, but it is still current. The Collector states that he has not met with any case of higher interest than this; lower rates are sometimes obtained, but that mentioned above is the most common rate of interest charged. Large loan transactions, when a loan is granted upon moveable property, are not very common. The Collector mentions a case in which interest at 48 per cent. was given in a case of this description, but states that the ordinary rate is about half this sum. In large transactions, where a mortgage is given on houses or land, the rate of interest varies from 8 to 24 per cent., the average rate being from 10 to 14 per cent. Petty agricultural advances to the cultivators upon the personal security of the borrower are not common in the District.

Neither are petty advances to the husbandmen, the amount being secured to the lender by a lien upon the crops, usual; and when such cases do occur, it is generally when a man has urgent need of a certain sum, and sells or pawns his crop for this sum in advance. Such cases are a sort of lottery to the purchaser, and it is difficult to fix the rate of interest. The return expected from money invested in landed property or estates is the lowest of all rates of interest, as there is always a demand for this kind of property. It varies in different parts of the District, and the Collector states that he has known cases, particularly in Bikrampur Fiscal Division, where the return could not possibly exceed 3 per cent. upon the purchase money. Six per cent., however, on the whole, may be taken as the average return from such property. The Bank of Bengal have opened out a branch in the town of Dacca, and there are also several large native banking-houses. Loans to the cultivators are generally made by some one in the borrower's village, usually the village merchant or larger shopkeepers. Sometimes, too, these advances are made by the petty shopkeepers and other well-to-do people. The town banking establishments are established chiefly for trading purposes.

IMPORTED CAPITAL.—The largest indigo planter and European landholder in Dacca is Mr J. P. Wise, who owns nearly all the factories of the District except those in the extreme north-west corner, which belong to the Eastern Bengal Indigo Company. Most of the factories now held by Mr Wise originally belonged to a Dr Lamb, but the present owner has possessed them for the last forty years. No statistics that could be given with regard to Mr Wise's expenditure would indicate the real cost of cultivation, because that gentlemen, as a large landholder, can always get his labour cheap; and he also lets the fields in the neighbourhood of indigo lands at low rents in order to ensure the cultivators acting with him. Moreover, a very large number of the labourers employed by him are his own cultivators. His expenditure on indigo cultivation in 1870 is returned at £29,047. Profits from indigo vary so much that some years the return is enormous, while in others the cost of cultivation is scarcely covered. Very little imported capital is employed in the District, as Mr Wise's was made here. That employed by the Eastern Bengal Indigo Company is of small amount. No trustworthy figures can be given regarding the total value of the manufactures of Dacca.

INSTITUTIONS AND SOCIETIES.—The following are the most important native institutions in the District:—(1) Káchádiá Hitakarí Sabhá; a benevolent society, the object of which is the clearing of jungle, improving of roads, distribution of alms, &c. (2) Bikrampur Hitasádhiní; a similar society, the object of which is the improvement of Bikrampur Fiscal Division. (3) Subhakarí Sabhá; an institution established to promote the education of the lower classes and of females, to further which end they publish a cheap Bengali paper called the *Subha Sádhiní*. (4) Antashpur Strí Sikshá Bidháyiní Sabhá; another institution for the encouragement of female education. (5) Bráhma Samáj; described on a previous page. (6) Hindu Dharma Rakshiní Sabhá. The object of this last-mentioned society is the preservation of the orthodox Hindu religion, especially against the innovations of the Bráhma Samáj. The Dacca Institute is an institution similar to the Calcutta Social Science Association, and consists of both European and native members. The Christian religious institutions consist of the different churches of the Church of England, Roman Catholics, Baptists, and Armenians. An account of the educational institutions of Dacca will be given on a subsequent page.

NEWSPAPERS AND PRINTING PRESSES.—The principal English journal is the *Bengal Times*, lately called the *Dacca News*, a weekly periodical with an estimated circulation of about 250. It represents the interests of the great landholders and indigo and tea planters. The *Weekly Times* is a literary journal conducted by students, and contains essays written by them. It has an estimated circulation of about 100. The *Dacca Prakás* is one of the most respectable of the vernacular papers. It represents the political views of the educated natives generally, and is ably conducted. It is printed in Bengali, and has an estimated circulation of about 300 copies. The *Hindu Hitaishiní* is the organ of the Dharma Rakshiní Sabhá, and as such is of course very orthodox in its religious views. Politically it has the same views as the *Dacca Prakás*. It is printed in Bengali, and has an estimated circulation of 250 copies. The *Banga Bandhu* is the organ of the most advanced section of the Bráhmas, and is both a political and religious paper. In politics it holds the same views as the *Dacca Prakás*, the *Hindu Hitaishiní*, and other vernacular papers; but in matters of religion it is utterly opposed to the last-named paper. It is printed in Bengali, and has an average circulation of about 300 copies. The

Hitakarí and *Subha Sádhiní*, both printed in Bengali, are two rival cheap papers sold for a pice, the smallest copper coin current in India, equal to one and a half farthings of English money. These papers were started almost at the same time, and the object of both is to bring social and political topics before the masses in a cheap form, and in a language suited to their capacity. Both papers studiously avoid religious controversies. Their average circulation is between 500 and 600 copies. The *Mitra Prakás*, a bi-monthly journal printed in Bengalí, is a literary rather than a political paper. There are four general printing presses in Dacca District which undertake ordinary printing—the *Bengal Times* press, which prints in English only; the *Dacca Prakás*, which prints generally in Bengali, but occasionally in English; and the *Hindu Hitaishiní* and *Grish-Jantra*, which print only in Bengali.

INCOME.—The estimated income of Dacca District, as calculated for the purposes of the Income-Tax Act of 1870, namely, the total amount of incomes exceeding £50 per annum, was £507,395. The amount of income-tax realised in 1870–71, with the rate of assessment at $3\frac{1}{8}$ per cent., was £15,875. In the following year the rate of the tax was reduced to $1\frac{1}{24}$ per cent., and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75 per annum; the amount of tax realised in 1871–72 was £4433.

HISTORY OF THE DISTRICT.—The following local history of the District is reproduced from Mr A. L. Clay's Report. Some of the subsequent facts seem questionable:—"Very little is known of the early history of Dacca. There is a tradition that the celebrated Hindu Rájá Bikramáditya held his court in the southern portion of the District for some years, and gave his name to the Parganá of Bikrampur. The Bhuiyá, or Buddhist Rájás (founders of the Pál dynasty of the Kings of Bengal) are the next rulers spoken of. Three of them took up their abode in this District, to the north of the Burígangá and Dhaleswarí, where the sites of their capitals are still to be seen. Jas Pál resided at Mádhabpur in Tálibábád; Haris Chandra at Kátibárí, near Sábhár; and Sisu Pál at Kápásiá in Bháwál. The dynasty of Adisur is supposed to have been contemporaneous with that of the Pál Rájás, and to have held sway in the tract lying south of the Burígangá river. Rájá Ballál Sen is here considered to have been the immediate successor of Adisur in the government of Bikrampur, and is said to have been reigning at the time this part of Bengal was conquered

by the Muhammadans. Traces of his residence are still to be seen at a short distance from the old fort of Idrakpur."

I temporarily take leave of the report. Like most others drawn up by the District Officers, it throws valuable light upon the local annals. But whenever it impinges upon general history, it depends on evidence which the Compiler can seldom test, and as a matter of fact, the Dacca Report represents the state of historical knowledge in 1780. Mr Blochmann supplies me with the following facts. The Bengal territory conquered in 1203–4 by the Muhammadans did not comprise the Eastern Districts, the Bangadesh proper, which remained in the possession of Ballál Sen's descendants till the end of the thirteenth century, when Sonárgáon was occupied by the grandsons of the Emperor Balban. In 1330, Muhammad Tughluk conquered Eastern Bengal also, and divided it into three Provinces, Lakhnautí, Sátgáon, and Sonárgáon including Dacca. The governor of the last Province was Tatár Bahrám Khán. On his death in 1338, his armour-bearer Fakhr-ud-dín seized the government, and reigned for more than ten years under the title of Mubárak Sháh. After an unsuccessful attempt by his son and his son-in-law to retain possession of the Eastern Districts, the whole of Bengal was, in 1351, united by Shams-ud-dín Iliás Sháh and his son Sikandar Sháh; Sonárgáon near Dacca becoming the residence of the governors, generally sons of the reigning king. Hence Sonárgáon and the Eastern Districts were the centres of frequent rebellions. Thus Azam Sháh, Sikandar's son, proclaimed his independence in Sonárgáon, where he invited the poet Háfiz to his court. Under Azam Sháh's successors, the throne of Bengal was usurped by Rájá Káns, and the Eastern Districts fell a pray to the Rájás of Tipperah, Assam, and Arákán. But about 1445, Bengal was again united under Mahmúd Sháh (I.), a descendant of Iliás Sháh, whose family reigned till 1487. During their reigns, the Eastern Districts formed the Province of Muazzamábád, which extended from the Meghná to Láur in Silhet, whilst the country round about Dacca, Faridpur, and Bákarganj was called Jalálábád and Fathiábád. Then followed the house of the usurper Hussain Sháh, the greatest king Bengal has had, who extended his power from the Eastern Districts over the whole of Bengal. In 1538, Sher Sháh commenced to reign. Sonárgáon was the terminus of the grand trunk road which he made. His Afghán successors

succumbed to the Mughuls. I now return to the official report. The Afgháns, when driven by Akbar from inner Bengal, "took refuge in the frontier Districts of Orissa and Dacca. Here they established themselves, and erected forts at Ganakpárá and Guripárá, near Dhámrái. On the Emperor Akbar's death in 1605, Usmán Khán, one of their chiefs, collected an army of 20,000 men and was proclaimed King. He overran the lower part of Bengal, and maintained his position till 1612, when he was defeated and slain by the Mughuls in a battle in Eastern Bengal (erroneously spoken of as in Orissa). Islám Khán was then Governor of the Province; and after this victory he is said to have removed the seat of government from Rájmahal to Dacca. Stewart, in his 'History of Bengal,' says that this event took place four years earlier, and mentions a descent by the Maghs upon the coast as the probable cause of the transfer.

"The only other noteworthy event mentioned in connection with Islám Khán's government is an incursion by the united forces of the Portuguese and Maghs, supported by the Rájá of Arákán. The invaders laid waste the eastern bank of the Meghná, and proceeded as far up as Lakhmípur, where they were met by the Mughul troops, and routed with great slaughter.

"Islám Khán was succeeded in the Viceroyalty by his brother Kásim Khán. From this period to the accession of Sultán Muhammad Shujá to the Viceroyalty of the Subah, in 1639, the country appears to have been desolated by a continual succession of internal wars and foreign aggression. During this time the eastern Districts were constantly ravaged by the Assamese in the north, and the Maghs in the south. The cruelties perpetrated by these invaders are described as having been atrocious; and at one time almost the entire revenues of the Province were absorbed in *jágírs* assigned for the protection of the borders.

"Muhammad Shujá, after a short residence at Dacca, made Rájmahal his capital, and during the twenty years of his government, distinguished himself by the introduction of reforms into all departments of the State. An improved revenue-roll was made out, and the amount of revenue considerably increased. While Rájmahal was the capital, the charge of the eastern Districts was made over to Deputy-Governors, of whose administration little or nothing is recorded.

"We now come to the Viceroyalty of Mír Jumlah, who, at his accession in 1660, once more made Dacca the seat of government. This was perhaps the most flourishing era in the history of Dacca. To

guard against the incursions of Maghs and other frontier tribes from Arákán, Mír Jumlah built the several forts at the confluence of the Lakhmiá and Dhaleswarí, the ruins of which still remain. The principal of these are the forts of Hájíganj and Idrakpur, the latter of which has since been converted into a residence for the Deputy-Magistrate of Munshíganj. The Viceroy also constructed several good military roads and bridges in the vicinity of the city, and the bridges at Páglá and Tungí may probably be attributed to him.[1] The former of these is now a ruin; the latter was blown up during the Mutiny by Mr Carnac, the Magistrate, but has since been repaired with timber, and is still in use on the high road to Maimansinh. Mír Jumlah undertook an expedition to Assam, and started with a large force, including the Nawárá or Mughul fleet. He obtained a series of successes, but was ultimately obliged to retreat on account of disease among his troops. He himself fell sick, and died near Dacca. His body is said to have been removed to his birthplace near Ispahan. He is still remembered as one of the most distinguished Nawábs that ever governed at Dacca. The large gun that now stands in the middle of the Chauk is one of two that are said to have been placed in front of the great Katrá in his time.

"Mír Jumlah was succeeded by Shaistah Khán Amír ul Omrá, nephew of the Empress Núr Jahán. One of the first measures undertaken by this Nawáb was an expedition against Chittagong, which was captured, and its name changed to Islámábád. Shaistah Khán governed fifteen years, with an interval of two years, during which Fidái Khán, Azím Khán, and Sultán Muhammad Azam, third son of Aurangzeb, acted as Viceroys. The last of these commenced building the palace of the Lál Bágh in 1678, and left it in an unfinished state to his successor, Shaistah Khán. This latter appears never to have completed the structure, but erected within its walls a handsome mausoleum to the memory of his daughter Bibí Parí, the wife of Sultán Muhammad Azam. Shaistah Khán is also the reputed founder of several large mosques and other buildings, now in ruins.[2] During his administration the city and suburbs extended to the

[1] A native History of Dacca says that the Tungí bridge was built by a *fakír* named Sháh Tungí in the time of Aurangzeb, while Ibráhim Khán held the Nawábí. [I give Mr Clay's dates on his authority.]

[2] This ruler appears to have encouraged architecture. A style of building prevalent in the city is still called "Shaistah Khání."

northward as far as Tungí, a distance of about fourteen miles, the greater part of which is now covered with jungle. His government appears to have been noteworthy, rather as a period of general tranquillity and prosperity than for any remarkable military achievements. Provisions were procurable at moderate prices, and the general state of the country is represented as having been most flourishing. In obedience to the orders of the Emperor Aurangzeb, this Nawáb confiscated the different English factories in the country, and kept the commercial agents at Dacca in irons for some time.

"On the dismissal from the government of the Nawáb Ibráhim Khán, after the breaking out of Sobhá Singh's insurrection in Bardwán, the Emperor Aurangzeb appointed his grandson, Prince Azímu-Shán, to the Nizámat of Bengal. With a view to increasing the revenue, in which there had been no improvement since the time of Sultán Shujá, he bestowed the Díwání upon Murshid Kulí Khán, who had already brought himself into notice in the inferior offices of that department. This official disbanded the royal household cavalry, which were of little use in a low country like Dacca, and resumed the *jágírs* assigned for their support. This and other measures of retrenchment were most distasteful to Prince Azímu-Shán, who strongly objected to the control exercised over the State expenditure. He therefore organised a conspiracy, the object of which was the assassination of the Díwán. The plot was foiled by the boldness of Murshid Kulí Khán, who forced his way through the soldiers that had been hired to murder him, and succeeded in reaching the palace. There he accused Azím-u-Shán of treachery, and challenged him to single combat, which the Prince declined. The Díwán sent an account of the matter to the Emperor, and considering himself no longer safe at Dacca, proceeded to Murshidábád, where he took up his residence. In consequence of this affair Prince Azím-u-Shán was ordered to proceed to Behar. No one having been nominated as his successor in Bengal, he left the government to his son Farrukh Siyar, who made himself universally esteemed by his wise and liberal measures. Subsequently, Murshid Kulí Khán was appointed Názim by Aurangzeb, but he was not formally recognised as such till Farrukh Siyar became Emperor of Delhi. From this time (1704) Dacca ceased to be the seat of the Viceregal government, and the eastern Districts were made over to a Náib or Deputy of the Názim. The *niábat* or government extended from the Gáro Hills on the north to the Sundarbans on the south, and

from the Tipperah Hills on the east to Jessor on the west, thus comprising a far greater extent of country than the present Dacca District. It was considered the highest and most lucrative appointment under the Nizámat.

"The history of the Dacca and neighbouring Districts, from this time to the acquisition of the Díwání by the Honourable East India Company, in 1765, presents little worthy of note. It may be mentioned, however, that the Tipperah territory, the subjection of which to the Mughul Government had hitherto been merely nominal, was annexed to the Province during the Government of Mirzá Latífullah, who was appointed Náib in 1713. The subsequent Náibs appear to have resided for the most part at Murshidábád, the government at Dacca being administered by deputies. The natural consequences of this state of things followed. The prosperity or otherwise of the country depended chiefly on the personal character of the Náib Názim or the deputies, some of whom seem to have governed well and wisely, while others made it their chief object to amass wealth at the expense of the provinces committed to their charge. Among these latter may be mentioned Rájballabh, Peshkár of the Nawárá, and subsequently appointed Deputy-Governor, who is said, during his short term of office, to have amassed the enormous sum of two crores of rupees (£2,000,000). He also acquired a great quantity of land, which afterwards constituted the valuable *zamíndárí* of Rájnagar. Near a village of the same name, on the south side of the Padmá or Kirtinásá, are still to be seen the ruins of the splendid residence erected by this Rájá Rájballabh, whose descendants are still living, though greatly reduced in circumstances. A large portion of the money amassed by this man was conveyed out of the District by his son Krishna Dás, who was supposed to have taken it into Fort-William. It was in search of this treasure, it is said, that Siráj-ud-Daulah was induced to commence hostilities against the English, which ended in their obtaining possession of the country in 1757. With this date, the history of Dacca under the native dynasties virtually ceases. On the establishment of the British power, the representatives of the native rulers were pensioned by Lord Clive, but the empty title of Nawáb was still continued in the family. In the year 1845, the title and dignity became extinct, on the death of the last incumbent without heirs. The pecuniary allowances thereupon lapsed, but a small sum was allowed for the maintenance of the female connections and servants of the late

Nawáb, a few of whom are still pensioners of Government. At the Company's accession to the Díwání in 1765, the administration of the Dacca Province was carried on by two departments—Huzúrí and Nizámat; the former was under the Provincial Díwán, who resided at Murshidábád, and carried on the business at Dacca by deputy. The jurisdiction of this officer comprised the charge of the crown finances, and the settlement of all disputes relating to revenue. The department of the Nizámat related chiefly to civil and criminal suits, and the collection of a portion of the revenue which was assigned to defray the expense of this establishment. In 1769 a supervisor of revenue was appointed with entire control over the departments of Huzúrí and Nizámat. In 1772 the title was changed to that of Collector; and in the same year, on assumption by the Company of the office of Díwán in the place of Muhammad Rezá Khán, a court of Díwání Adálat was instituted, of which the Collector was made the superintendent. In 1774 the Provincial Council was established; Náibs were appointed to collect the revenue, and to hold the court of Díwání Adálat, from which an appeal lay to the Council. In 1781 the Council was abolished, Mr Day was appointed Collector and Magistrate, and a Court of Judicature was established, of which Mr Duncanson was the first Judge.

"The French and Dutch factories were taken possession of by the English in the years 1778 and 1781 respectively. The falling off of the general Dacca trade took place as far back as 1801, previously to which the yearly advances made by the East India Company and private traders for Dacca muslins were estimated at upwards of twenty-five lákhs of rupees (£250,000). In 1807, the Company's investments had fallen to £59,590, and the private trade to about £56,020. In 1813, the private trade did not exceed £20,595, and that of the Company was scarcely more considerable. In 1817, the English Commercial Residency was altogether discontinued." [I find that in my description of Dacca City, condensed from Dr Taylor, these sentences are included, inadvertently without acknowledgment.]

THE MUTINY OF 1857 AT DACCA.—The only political disturbance which has taken place in Dacca District since the English obtained possession of the country was the Mutiny of 1857, In that year the sepoys stationed in the city consisted of two companies of the 73rd Native Infantry. Upon the arrival of the news of the outbreak at Meerut, an uneasy feeling manifested itself among the Dacca sepoys, which gradually increased till the Government found it neces-

sary to despatch a force of a hundred men of the Indian Navy for the protection of the town. The European and East Indian residents, to the number of about sixty, also enrolled themselves as volunteers. This force sufficed to keep the sepoys from any overt act till the 26th November, when the news arrived that the sepoys stationed at Chittagong had mutinied, plundered the treasury, and carried off about three lákhs of rupees. It was thereupon resolved that the Dacca sepoys should be disarmed, and for this purpose the volunteers and sailors were warned to be ready at five o'clock the following morning. The occurrence is thus described by Mr Brennand, Principal of the Dacca College, and quoted from the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division":—

"At the time appointed, there were assembled the Commissioner, the Judge, and some other civilians, and from twenty to thirty volunteers. It was still dark, and we waited a short time for the signal. The plan was, to begin by disarming the Treasury guard, to place the disarmed men in charge of the volunteers; the sailors would then proceed with their whole force to the Lál Bágh; and it was hoped that the men there would have given up their arms without opposition. Everything appeared to go on well; the guards at the Treasury were disarmed before the signal was given for the volunteers to advance. There were about fifteen of the sepoys standing or sitting outside of their quarters, and the rest of them, making altogether about thirty-six, were supposed to be inside the building. They appeared to be very much dejected, and they reproached their officers for subjecting them to such disgrace, protesting that they would have given up their arms at once to their own officers had they only been asked to do so.

"In the meantime the sailors, on reaching the Lál Bágh, found the sepoys drawn out prepared to make a resistance; they had evidently been apprised of our intention to disarm them. The sentry fired his musket and killed one of our men; his example was followed by the others, and a volley was fired on the sailors as they advanced through the broken wall near the southern gateway. The guns had been placed in position in front of Bibí Parí's tomb, so as to command the entrance, and they opened fire upon our men with grape. As soon as the sailors had got well into the place, they fired a volley. Lieutenant Lewis then led them up the ramparts to the left, charging the sepoys, and driving them before them at the point of the bayonet. The sepoys took shelter in their quarters, but they were driven on

from building to building by the sailors. At this time Mr Mays, a midshipman, at the head of eight men, who were under his command, made a gallant charge from the ramparts down upon the sepoy guns; they were soon taken and spiked, and the sepoys began flying in every direction. There was a severe struggle at the end of the rampart: many of the sepoys were driven over the parapet. Mr Bainbridge had also a fall over the parapet as he stepped back to avoid the thrust of one of the sepoys. The sailors obtained a complete victory; the sepoys fled and concealed themselves in the jungle, leaving about forty of their number killed. Many of those who escaped were severely wounded. Our loss was one killed on the field, four severely wounded, since dead, and nine more or less severely wounded. Dr Green, who accompanied the sailors, was wounded in the thigh. He was kneeling down at the time attending to one of the sailors who had also been wounded."

The mutineers fled towards Maimansinh and Silhet, but several of the fugitives were captured, brought in, and executed. A portion of them are said to have ultimately succeeded in reaching Bhután territory.

ADMINISTRATIVE HISTORY; REVENUE UNDER THE MUGHUL GOVERNMENT.—The following is condensed from Dr Taylor's account in his "Topography of Dacca":—The two revenue divisions which comprised the Province of Dacca at the time Bengal was parcelled out by Rájá Todar Mall, the finance minister of Akbar, in 1558, were Bázúhá and Sonárgáon—the former included the city, and stretched eastward from Barbakábád towards Silhet; the latter was chiefly situated on the eastern side of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. The assessments levied by the Mughul Emperors were classed under the heads of *Mahal*, or revenue derived directly from the land; and *Sáyer*, or customs duties levied on nearly every article of trade at the markets and bázárs. With reference to the land revenue, the Bázúhá Division was divided into thirty-two Fiscal Divisions (*parganás*), assessed at £98,792; Sonárgáon contained fifty-two Fiscal Divisions (*parganás*), assessed at £25,828; making a total land revenue of £124,620. The assessment was levied at a fixed rate. In 1722 the Divisions of Bengal, as arranged by Todar Mall, were altered, and formed into thirteen *chaklás*, or military and civil jurisdictions. The Division of Jahángírnagar, or Dacca, included Sonárgáon, Bákarganj, portions of Bázúhá and Noákhálí as far as the river Phení, and also Tipperah and the Sundarbans.

This extensive tract, which comprised an area of 15,397 square miles, was subdivided into a number of large estates (*zamindáris*), containing 236 Fiscal Divisions, and assessed at £192,829. The landed estates (*jágírs*) assigned for the support of the civil and military establishments were computed to comprise one-third of the territory of Dacca. The principal of these estates was called the Nawárá, for the support of armed vessels to guard the coast against the Maghs and Assamese. At the time this fleet was established by the Emperor Akbar, it consisted of upwards of 3000 vessels. The Nawárá estate included the best land, and was subdivided into a number of smaller estates (*táluks*), which were granted to the boatmen and artificers of the fleet in lieu of wages. The second great military estate was that called Amlá Ahshám, and which was appropriated for the maintenance of a force of 2820 troops and artillery for the defence of the forts on the sea-coast. Another estate, called Sarkár Alí, was an assignment to defray the expenses of the Nawáb; half of it lay within the Dacca District. The estate of the Commander-in-chief, and for the support of his command of 2650 horse, lay chiefly in Dacca and Silhet Districts.

Connected with the territorial revenue were a number of assessments called *abwábs*, of which the most important in the Dacca Province were the following:—(1) A fee exacted from the landholders on the renewal of their leases; (2) a fee to cover the expenses of the presents sent to court at the time of the 'Id and other great Muhammadan festivals; (3) a percentage on the original territorial rent, distributed into several smaller assessments; (4) a permanent tax on the land, which was raised by the Náib, or Deputy-Governor, after Dacca had ceased to be the seat of the Bengal Viceroyalty, and which was retained by him as a perquisite of office; (5) the Marhattá *chauth*, a tax imposed by Alí Virdí Khán on the crown lands to defray the tribute exacted from him by the Marhattás. Other *abwábs*, or taxes on the land, were also levied by subsequent Governors.

The second great branch of revenue, called *Sáyer*, was levied at an early period of the Mughul administration. It consisted of duties or customs upon almost every article of life, and of imposts on trades, professions, and personal property. These taxes were collected at all markets, bázárs, and landing-places, and were generally farmed out either to the superior landlords in the neighbourhood, or were placed under the charge of Government

officers, who entered into engagements for the payment of the annual collections. The rate of assessment and mode of collection were not well defined, and being in most cases left to the uncontrolled management of renters and their subordinates, these taxes were generally very arbitrary and oppressive. The most important of them were the following:—(1) A tax on boat-building, varying from 1s. to 2s. 6d. according to the size of the vessel. It was also levied upon all boats arriving at or leaving the city, whose crews were not residents of the District. This proved extremely oppressive and injurious to the inland trade. But it was considered beneficial in leading to the detection of river robbers (*dákáits*); a register of all boats and their crews belonging to the District being kept by the landholders. (2) A tax on all articles sold in the market-place. (3) A tax on the sellers of grass in the city, varying from 4s. to 12s. a year. (4) A tax on persons bringing wood, bamboos, and thatching-grass into the city for sale. (5) A tax upon the makers of shields and accoutrements, varying from 2s. to 3s. per annum; besides the leather and other articles employed in the trade, which were separately taxed. (6) A tax on the manufacture of *sindur*, the red paint used by the Hindus. (7) A tax on betel-leaf sold in the city, and which was regulated according to the fluctuations in the price of the article. In 1773 this assessment was farmed out for the sum of £1844. (8) A tax on the sellers of vegetables, varying from 2s. to 10s. a year according to the extent of their dealings. (9) A tax upon the sellers of paper, at the rate of £3, 12s. per shop per year. (10) A tax on all persons engaged in trade in the city, varying from 2s. to 5s. per year. (11) Taxes on sundry artificers and shopkeepers in the city, including the manufacturers of gold and silver thread and of fireworks, of shell-cutters, weavers of flowered muslins, and gold and silver smiths. (12) A tax on bear or monkey leaders, snake-charmers, bird-catchers, singers, and conjurors. (13) A tax on musicians of every kind. The aggregate amount of this and the preceding tax averaged £450 a year. (14) Taxes on the sale of wood, and on the sellers of dried fish and salt. (15) A tax levied by officers who were appointed to regulate and inspect the weights and measures in the city. As no salary was allowed to these officers, they were allowed a percentage at the rate of 1s. upon every £10 worth of merchandise. This tax was continued for some time after the Company's accession. Besides these duties, which were mostly collected in the towns, other taxes of the same

sort were levied at all the markets in the country. The whole of them were abolished in 1790, and compensation was granted to the landholders for the loss they sustained by their abolition; but as late as 1839 they continued to be exacted by the landlords under the head of ground-rent. No information is given as to the total revenue derived from these *Sáyer* duties. Some of them still survive.

Turning to the expenditure side of the account under the Mughul rule, it is stated that the charges incurred in the collection of the revenue never exceeded 10 per cent. of the amount, and were defrayed by appropriating to the use of the landholders one or more estates under the designation of *Nánkár*, to which the rights of pasturage, fuel, and fishing were subsequently added. The principal item of expenditure was a sum of £9000 for the maintenance of troops. Other disbursements consisted of subsistence allowances, either in land or money, to religious and learned men.

ADMINISTRATION UNDER THE COMPANY.—On the acquisition of the administration of the country by the East India Company in 1765, the general assessment, which under the previous administration of Muhammad Reza Khán is mentioned at £380,000, was reduced to £205,000. At this time the area of the District is stated to have been 15,397 square miles. Seven years later, a settlement of the District was made for five years, for a net revenue of £269,304. Several tracts, including Silhet and other parts, were afterwards separated from Dacca; but at the time of the Permanent Settlement in 1793, the Dacca Collectorate included not only the present District of Dacca, but also Bákarganj and Faríḍpur. In 1803 the land revenue amounted to £125,000, paid by 16,000 landed proprietors. A tax on spirituous liquors distilled and sold in the city was introduced in 1790, when the *Sáyer* duties were abolished. Opium was taxed in 1795–96. The principal items of revenue in 1836–37, after the separation of Bákarganj and Faríḍpur, and their constitution into separate Collectorates, is returned by Mr Taylor as follows:—Land revenue, £43,035; excise (*ábkárí*) and stamp duties, £12,403; total, £55,438, exclusive of the Police-Tax, and the revenue derived from Ferries and the Post-Office. From this time to the end of the Company's administration, I have no means of ascertaining the amount of the revenue at any subsequent period, as the Collector reports that the records have been destroyed.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE UNDER THE CROWN.—In 1860–61, the total net revenue of the District, after making all deductions on

account of transfers and inefficient balances, was £86,926, and the total civil expenditure £44,666. In 1870–71, the Budget Estimate showed a total net revenue of £111,620, and a civil expenditure of £49,803. During the ten years, therefore, between 1860–61 and 1870–71, the revenue has increased by 28 per cent., and the expenditure by 11 per cent.

The following balance-sheet shows the detailed revenue and expenditure of the District for 1870–71. On the Revenue Side, the items of land revenue, income-tax, jail manufactures, and postal receipts; and on the Expenditure, those for police, education, medical, jails, postal expenditure, and ecclesiastical, are the actual charges of the year. The other items are from the Budget Estimate.

BALANCE-SHEET OF DACCA DISTRICT FOR 1870–71.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Land Revenue . .	£53,671 18 0	Civil Court . .	£11,460 12 0
Sale of Government Estates . .	2,500 0 0	Small Cause Court .	2,200 0 0
Rent of Police Lands .	13 8 0	Criminal Court . .	1,195 4 0
Málikáná (Proprietary allowance) . .	69 10 0	Commissioner's Office .	4,964 4 0
Excise . . .	13,353 16 0	Collector's Office .	3,737 2 0
Stamp Revenue . .	23,085 0 0	Customs Department .	878 2 0
Miscellaneous . .	57 10 0	Survey Superintendent's Office . . .	900 0 0
Income-Tax . .	15,875 18 0	Police . . .	8,552 14 0
Jail Manufactures .	85 11 3	Jails	3,418 17 6
Postal Receipts .	2,907 12 3	Medical	2,407 2 5
		Educational . .	6,945 8 10
		Ecclesiastical . .	960 0 0
		Postal Expenditure .	3,011 16 2
Total	£111,620 3 6	Total	£50,631 2 1

In order to arrive at the actual net expenditure, five-sixths of the establishment of the Commissioner of the Division must be deducted. The amount properly chargeable to the District of Dacca is only £827, 7s. 4d. This reduces the actual expenditure on civil administration within the District to £49,803, 14s. 9d., as stated above.

THE LAND-TAX.—In the year 1850 there were 8606 estates on the District Rent Roll, held by 9731 registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total Government land revenue of £43,036, making an average payment of £5 by each estate, or £4, 8s. by each individual proprietor or coparcener. In 1870–71 the Budget Estimate showed 8739 estates, held by 16,688 registered proprietors or coparceners, indicating that tendency towards the subdivision

of property, which is now noticeable in nearly every District of Bengal. The net revenue paid by these 16,688 proprietors amounted to £52,700, making an average payment of £6 by each estate, or of £3, 3s. by each registered proprietor or coparcener. In 1867 there were said to be 9341 estates on the rent roll of the District, and the following particulars with regard to them are obtained from Mr Clay's account in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," pp. 52–54:—Of the 9341 estates on the rent roll in 1867, two pay an annual revenue of less than 1½d.; 381 pay between 1½d. and 1s. a year; 571 between 1s. and 2s.; 4554 from 2s. to £1; 2575 between £1 and £5; 495 between £5 and £10; 571 between £10 and £50; 101 between £50 and £100; 79 between £100 and £500; 8 between £500 and £1000; and 4 above £1000. The highest amount of revenue paid by any one estate is £1427, 16s. 9½d., and the lowest only a fraction above three farthings. Of the total number of estates on the rent roll, 7035 were settled in perpetuity at the time of the Permanent Settlement, and 180 have been so settled since that time. Of these 180 estates, 1 had been bought by Government at a sale for the recovery of arrears of revenue; 51 were resumed *lákhiráj* (rent free or lightly assessed) estates; and 128 were *chars* or islands, resumed under Regulation II. of 1819. The number of estates in which Government has sold its rights as landlord is 1350, and the total amount realised as the sale proceeds thereof is £91,160. Of these 1350 estates, 234 were purchased estates; 26 were resumed *chars;* 1 was a *ghair-bandobastí* or newly discovered estate; and 1089 were resumed military tenures (*jágírs*), granted by the Nawábs of Dacca, and resumed by the Government on the extinction of their family. Of the 234 purchased estates, 207 were sold by public auction, and 27 were sold to the owners thereof at a price equal to two years' assessment. Of the 1089 resumed military estates, 897 were sold to their holders at a price equal to twelve years' assessment, and the remaining 192 were put up to public auction. Up to 1867 Government had retained its rights in 506 estates, of which 179 were purchased estates; 4 were unclaimed; 2 were newly discovered; 262 were *chars* resumed under Regulation II. of 1819; 30 were resumed rent-free estates; 12 were military tenures; and 17 were fishing (*jalkar*) estates resumed under orders of Government. The aggregate revenue of these estates amounted to £6699 in 1866–67. Twenty estates only are recorded as held exempt from the payment

of public revenue. Many more exist, but their number is not known. Permanently settled estates are liable to be brought to public auction, for non-payment of arrears of revenue on or before the latest dates fixed by the Board of Revenue for such payments. These dates are, in Dacca District, the 12th January, 28th March, 28th June, and the 28th September. Petty estates paying less that £1 a year of Government revenue are only liable once in the year to be sold for non-payment of arrears; estates paying between £1 and £5 a year are twice liable to be sold; and those paying between £5 and £10 are liable to sale three times a year. In special cases, arrears due from farmers of Government estates are recoverable by attachment of the farm, arrest of the defaulter or his surety if there be one, or by sale of land or other property belonging to such defaulter or his surety. As far as can be ascertained from the Collectorate records, 292 estates have been resumed from time to time up to 1866–67, of which the total revenue amounts to £4167, 12s. A large number of estates were apparently resumed by Special Deputy-Collectors appointed for the purpose. Eighteen tenures which were brought under resumption proceedings were released, the probable assets of which amounted to £196, 10s. In the course of the Survey operations many rent-free tenures came to light. Some of these were resumed, but the greater part were released; because in many cases it appeared that Government had lost its right by lapse of time; in others it was found that the tenures were not revenue free, but formed portions of permanently settled estates, and had been granted by the proprietors free of rent.

THE AMOUNT OF PROTECTION TO PERSON AND PROPERTY has steadily increased. In 1850 there were six Magisterial and nineteen Civil and Revenue Courts in the whole District; in 1862 the number had increased to ten Magisterial, and twenty-six Civil and Revenue Courts, the increase in the latter being partly due to the number of rent cases instituted under Act X. of 1859; in 1869 there were eight Magisterial Courts sitting throughout the year, besides one Honorary Magistrate's Court, and twenty-five Civil and Revenue Courts. The number of Covenanted Officers has not increased of late years; four European officers were stationed in the District in 1850, and the same number in 1869. There are no records in existence showing the number of Courts and Covenanted Officers prior to 1850. The number of rent cases instituted under the provisions of Act X. of 1859 is as follows:—In 1861–62, 4335 original suits

were instituted, besides 435 miscellaneous applications; in 1862–63, there were 2214 original suits, and 643 miscellaneous applications; in 1866-67, 1992 original suits were instituted, besides 1410 miscellaneous applications; in 1868–69, the number of original suits had decreased to 1791, or less than half what they were in 1861–62, while the number of miscellaneous applications had increased to 1356, or upwards of three times what they were in the former year.

POLICE.—A great improvement has also taken place in the organisation of the Police Force within the last thirty years. In 1840 the cost of officering the District Police was £1353, 12s.; in that year there were 190 constables or village policemen, maintained at a charge of £684. In 1860, there were 200 constables, maintained at a cost of £942; the expense of officering the police in that year being £3067. The present Police Force of Dacca District consists of the Regular Police, the Village Watch, and a Municipal Police in the three large towns. At the end of 1871, the Regular Force of the District stood as follows:—2 European superintendents, on a total salary of £1140 per annum; 68 native subordinate officers, on an average pay of £43, 15s. 3d. per annum; and 360 foot constables, on an average pay of £8, 2s. 2d. a year; making a total strength of 430 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £8552, 14s., including travelling allowances, office establishment, contingencies, and all other charges. The Surveyor-General, in 1871, returned the area of the District at 2902 square miles, and by the Census of 1872 the population was ascertained to be 1,852,993 souls. The strength of the Regular Police of all ranks, as compared with the area of the District, is therefore one man to every 6·7 square miles, and as compared with the population, one man to every 4309 souls. The cost of maintaining this force is £2, 19s. for every square mile of area, or a fraction over a penny per head of the population. Attached to the Regular Force is a River Patrol, consisting of one boat with a crew of nine men, carrying two police-officers and two constables. The annual cost of this river police amounted to £68, 8s. in 1871, including the hire of the boat. This sum is included in the total cost of the Regular Police. The Village Watch or Rural Police, in 1871, amounted to 3068 men, receiving an estimated pay of £6903, paid by the villagers, or an average pay of £2, 5s. a year per head, equal to a charge of £2, 7s. 6d. per square mile, or just over three farthings per head of the population. Each rural watchman has, on the average, 94 houses under his charge, according to the Census

Report. The Municipal Police is a force stationed in the three large towns of Dacca, Mánikganj, and Náráinganj. It consisted, in 1871, of 12 native officers and 251 men, maintained at a cost of £2022, 18s. per annum. Including the Regular Force, the Village Watch, and the Municipal Police, the force of all ranks amounts to 3761 men, being one man to every 0·8 square miles, or one to every 493 of the population. The total expense of the force is £17,478, 12s. The total cost, therefore, of protecting person and property in Dacca District is £6, os. 5d. per square mile, or a fraction over 2¼d. per head of the population. During the year 1871, the police conducted 2084 cognisable cases, the final percentage of convictions to men brought to trial being 53·9 per cent.; the number of non-cognisable cases was 4101, the proportion of convictions to cases brought to trial being 52·5 per cent. In serious cases the police were not very successful; of five persons accused of murder not one was convicted; and in nine gang robberies they failed to obtain a single conviction. The Lieutenant-Governor, in his Resolution on the Report on the Police of the Lower Provinces for the year 1870, observes, "It is remarkable that the three Districts at the bottom of the list in regard to percentage of convictions for murder are Húglí, Dacca, and Nadiyá, all Jury Districts." The value of the property stolen during the year was reported to be £5931, 8s., of which only property to the value of £949 was recovered, or under 16 per cent. of the total value of the stolen goods.

Criminal Classes.—Crime is not very prevalent in Dacca, the chief offences being theft, mischief, voluntarily causing hurt, assault, using criminal force, wrongful restraint, wrongful confinement, and enticing away married women for illicit purposes. In 1868 the daily average number of prisoners in the District jail, as well as the subordinate lock-ups at Mánikganj, Munshíganj, and Mádárípur, was 436, including 8 females, or one person always in jail to every 4250 of the population. The total number admitted during the year amounted to 1575, including 38 women; the average term of residence of each prisoner in jail being 98·82 days. The average daily number on the sick list was 14, the constant sickness rate being 3 per cent. of the total jail population. Sixteen deaths occurred during the year, said to be chiefly among prisoners who were in a hopeless state at the time of their admission. In 1869 the daily average number of prisoners in jail was 465, of whom 7 were females. The total number admitted into jail from all causes was 2272, and 567

prisoners remained in jail on the 31st December 1869. Fifteen deaths occurred during the year. The cost of maintenance during the years 1868 and 1869 was as follows:—In 1868 the cost for rations amounted to £2, 12s. 3d. per head; establishment, hospital charges, clothing, repairs, and contingencies, amounted to £2, 7s. 1d. per prisoner, making a gross total of £4, 19s. 4d. per head. Deducting, however, the sum of £166, 7s. 5d. from the cost of the jail, as the value of the prisoners' labour, the result leaves a net charge of £4, 11s. 5¾d. a head. In 1869 the charge was considerably higher; rations amounted to £3, 11s. 3¾d., and all other charges to £2, 11s. 0¾d., making a total gross charge of £6, 2s. 4½d., or, deducting the value of the prison labour, a net charge of £6, 0s. 1¼d. The articles manufactured in the Dacca jail are cloths of several kinds, such as prisoners' clothing, dusters, fancy cloths for door-screens, tablecovers, rattan chairs, cane stools, country paper, and mustard-oil.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.—An English seminary was first established by Government in Dacca in 1835. Two years later it is described as being well attended, and in a very flourishing and promising condition. In 1841 the school was raised to the position of a college, and the foundation laid of the present building, which was completed in 1846. The College is affiliated to the Calcutta University, and is open to all who have passed the University Entrance Examination. In 1867 the College staff consisted of the Principal, two Professors, an Assistant Professor, and a Law Lecturer. The students pay a fee of ten shillings a month. An English school is also attached to the College, conducted, in 1867, by a Head-Master, assisted by eight Sub-Masters, a *Pandit* for teaching Sanskrit, and a *Munshí* for Urdu and Persian. The schooling fees vary from three shillings to six shillings per month. The other principal educational institutions in the town are the Pogose School, established by a wealthy Armenian gentleman, the Bráhma School, the Boys' School, and the Bángálá Bázár School, at all of which English is taught. There are also two Government Normal Schools, one for training male, and the other for female teachers.

The following table illustrates the progress of education during the fifteen years ending 1870–71. In 1856–57 there was a total of 13 Government and aided Schools, attended by 1449 pupils; in 1860–61 the number of Government and aided schools had increased to 21, and the pupils to 2003; and in 1870–71 the

Government and aided schools numbered 149, attended by a total of 7155 pupils. The cost to Government has increased from £3174, 9s. 2d. in 1856–57 to £3722, 16s. 5d. in 1860–61, and to £6945, 8s. in 1870–71. The amount derived from fees, subscriptions, and other private sources, was £1473, 5s. 8d in 1856–57; £1565, 12s. 7d. in 1860–61; and £4423, 2s. 10d. in 1870–71. The total expenditure on Government and aided schools has increased from £4545, 17s. 6d. in 1856–57 to £5287, 16s. 7d. in 1860–61, and to £11,343, 14s. 2d. in 1870–71. A striking feature in the following table is the smallness of the number of Musalmán pupils. Although the Muhammadans form 56·7 per cent of the whole population, the numbers attending the Government or aided schools was only 8 per cent. of the total pupils in 1870–71. The table is given on opposite page.

It must be borne in mind that this table only includes the Government and aided schools, which are under the direct supervision of the Educational Department. Of course there are a large number of private schools, but those who do not receive, and have no expectation of receiving, Government aid, seldom take the trouble to make returns to the Inspectors, or to give them any assistance. It is impossible, therefore, to give any trustworthy statistics as to even the approximate total number of schools, Government, aided, and private. There are also numerous Sanskrit *tols*, or Sanskrit schools, where logic, rhetoric, grammar, and astronomy are taught. These are principally situated in Bikrampur, which, as regards Sanskrit learning, ranks second only to Nadiyá in all Bengal. English education is making great progress among the Hindu population, who regard it as a *sine qua non* for obtaining any of the higher-paid Government appointments. The vernacular scholarships have also afforded a strong stimulus to vernacular education, and the Collector reports that a school of this class exists in almost every village of the District. Female education, however, does not make much progress. Parents do not object to their daughters being instructed, so long as they do not have to pay anything; but they remove the girls from school at an early age. A few years ago a native institution called the Antashpur Strí Sikshá Sabhá was established for the purpose of advancing female education.

RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN DACCA DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1856–57, 1860–61, AND 1870–71.

Classification of Schools.	Number.			Pupils.											Cost to Government.			Fees, Subscriptions, and other Private Contributions.			Expenditure.		
				Hindus.			Muhammadans.			Others.			Total.											
	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.
																£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Dacca Government College,	1	1	1	38	74	108	1	2	2	4	...	2	43	76	112	1271 0 6	1230 7 6	2931 13 1	100 3 11	90 0 6	671 11 10	1371 4 5	1320 8 0	3603 4 11
Dacca Collegiate School (Government),	1	1	1	305	221	266	12	5	10	25	20	10	342	246	286	1472 18 4	1103 5 4	990 13 8	794 1 0	595 15 7	567 8 0	2266 19 4	1699 0 11	1558 1 7
Government Vernacular Schools,	1	1	1	151	203	131	14	44	24	...	...	...	165	247	155	...	...	60 0 0	1 19 0	60 14 6	43 9 6	1 19 0	60 14 6	103 9 6
Government Institutions for special education,*	1	1	3	95	115	188	...	1	3	...	...	18	95	116	209	245 0 4	1098 13 4	1186 9 6	...	7 15 5	420 12 0	245 0 4	1106 8 9	1486 17 3
Aided English Schools,	7	8	39	696	912	1831	25	43	154	4	13	25	725	968	2010	176 15 0	203 17 3	754 17 6	509 6 7	722 14 0	1702 5 6	595 6 11	927 10 9	2531 19 2
Aided Vernacular Schools,	2	†6	92	72	199	3747	4	20	376	3	...	30	79	276	4153	8 15 0	48 5 0	972 9 1	67 15 2	64 11 1	973 19 6	65 7 6	108 8 10	1940 5 2
Aided Girls' Schools,	...	3	12	...	72	212	...	1	8	...	1	10	...	74	230	...	38 8 0	49 5 2	...	24 1 6	43 16 6	...	65 4 10	119 16 7
Total,	13	21	149	1357	1796	6483	56	116	577	36	34	95	1449	2003	7155	3174 9 2	3722 16 5	6945 8 0	1473 5 8	1565 12 7	4423 2 10	4545 17 6	5287 16 7	11343 14 2

* The Government Institutions for special education consist of, (1) A Law Class attached to the Dacca College; (2) The Dacca Normal School; and (3) A Training School for mistresses.

† In the year 1860-61, detailed returns are not given for two aided vernacular schools, the total number of pupils only being given, and no information as to receipts or expenditure.

INCREASED USE OF POST-OFFICE IN DACCA DISTRICT, 1861–71.

	1861–62.		1865–66.		1870–71.	
	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.
Service letters,	33,782	43,916	37,930	39,644	...	
Private letters,	149,987	316,766	184,675	259,241	...	Return of
Total letters,	183,769	360,682	222,605	298,885	317,223	letters,
Service newspapers,	566	...	1,472	145	...	&c., de-
Private newspapers,	23,288	25,644	21,505	16,865	...	spatched
Total newspapers,	23,854	25,644	22,977	17,010	28,050	in 1870–71
Service parcels,	3,749	1,020	2,214	1,389	...	has not
Private parcels,	1,069	658	1,044	835	...	yet been
Total parcels,	4,818	1,678	3,258	2,224	3,404	received.
Total books,	2,273	1,336	2,295	1,750	4,357	
Receipts from sale of postage stamps,	£742 7 10		£1,121 15 6		£1,357 4 2	
Receipts from cash collections,	£875 6 7		£995 0 3		£1,550 8 0	
Total receipts,	£1,617 14 5		£2,116 15 9		£2,907 12 2	
Total charges,	£1,514 5 4		£1,529 15 10		£3,011 16 2	

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Dacca District is divided into three Administrative Subdivisions according to the Census. The population statistics are taken from the Census Report for 1872; Appendix, Statements 1 A and 1 B. The Administrative statistics are taken from the special report furnished to me by the Collector:—

The Headquarters Subdivision, including the City of Dacca, contains an area of 1926 square miles, with 3302 villages or townships, 165,537 houses, and a total population of 1,007,073 souls; of whom 413,293 are Hindus; 585,805 Muhammadans; 4 Buddhists; 7308 Christians; and 663 of other denominations; proportion of Muhammadans to total population, 58·2 per cent.; proportion of males to total population. 50·0 per cent. Average number of persons per square mile, 523; average number of villages or townships per square mile, 1·71; average number of persons per village or township, 305; average number of houses per square mile, 86; average number of inmates per house, 6·1. The subdivision consists of the seven police circles (*thánás*), Lál Bágh, Sábhár, Kápásiá, Ráipur, Rúpganj, Náráinganj, and Nawábganj. In 1869 it contained ten Revenue and Magisterial Courts, and a Police Force as under—4 inspectors, 12 sub-inspectors, 48 head constables, and 486 constables. This includes both the Regular and Municipal Police. The Village Watch or Rural Police, in the same year, numbered 1192; the separate cost of Subdivisional Administration is returned at £3067, 7s. from District funds, besides £1714, 8s. expended by the Municipality.

MUNSHÍGANJ SUBDIVISION was first formed in December 1845. The Census Report of 1872 returns it as containing an area of 446 square miles, with 650 villages or townships, 59,544 houses, and a total population of 459,874; of whom 224,345, or 48·8 per cent. are Hindus; 234,956, or 51·1 per cent. Muhammadans; 530 Christians; and 43 of other denominations. Proportion of males 46·5 per cent. of the total population. Average pressure of the population per square mile, 1031; average number of villages or townships per square mile, 1·45; average number of persons per village or township, 707; average number of houses per square mile, 133; average number of persons per house, 7·7. The Subdivision consists of the two police circles of Munshíganj and Srínagar. In 1869 it contained one Court, a Regular Police of 88 officers and men; a Municipal Police of 30 officers and men, and a Village Watch of 830 men. The separate cost of Subdivisional Administration is returned at £3996 from District, and £206 from Municipal Funds.

MÁNIKGANJ SUBDIVISION, formed in May 1845. In 1872, according to the Census Report, it contained an area of 525 square miles, with 1064 villages or towns, 65,512 houses, and 386,046 inhabitants; of whom 156,151, or 40·5 per cent. were Hindus; 229,370, or 59·4 per cent. Muhammadans; 6 Christians; and 519 of other denominations. Proportion of males to total population, 48·9; average number of persons per square mile, 735; average number of villages per square mile, 203; average number of persons per village, 363; average number of houses per square mile, 125; average number of persons per house, 5·8. The subdivision consists of the three police circles of Mánikganj, Jafarganj, and Harirámpur. In 1869 it contained one Court, and maintained a Regular Police Force of 68 officers and men, a Municipal Force of 40 officers and men, and a Village Watch of 769. The separate cost of Subdivisional Administration amounted to £3742, 11s. to the District, and £27, 16s. to the Municipality.

FISCAL DIVISIONS.—In 1870 the number of villages or rural communes in Dacca District was returned at 2885, containing an estimated population of about 314 souls each according to the results of the Survey. In the same year there were thirty-two towns or large villages which contained an estimated population of two thousand souls or upwards. For police purposes the District is divided into thirteen police stations (*thánás*), and nine outposts. The number of Fiscal Divisions (*parganás* and *tappás*) were returned as 182 in

1870 as follow:—(1) Aglá, (2) Akhrá Khalá Kopá tappá, (3) Alípur tappá, (4) Ambarpur tappá, (5) Amírábád, (6) Amírábád tappá, (7) Amírpur tappá, (8) Aoliánagar tappá, (9) Atiá, (10) Aurangábád, (11) Aurangábád tappá, (12) Azímpur Bangáon, (13) Bághmárá Kásimpur, (14) Bahar, (15) Baikunthpur, (16) Bákípur tappá, (17) Balaur, (18) Balrámpur, (19) Balrámpur tappá, (20) Bandarkholá, (21) Bandar Ikrámpur, (22) Bángrorá, (23) Barai Kándi tappá, (24) Bardákhát, (25) Barbáju, (26) Bhabánínagar tappá, (27) Bhabánípur, (28) Bháwál, (29) Bihrol, (30) Bikrampur, (31) Bírmohan, (32) Bírmohan tappá, (33) Boáliyá, (34) Chánd Pratáp, (35) Chandradwíp, (36) Charhái, (37) Chunákhálí, (38) Dakshín Sháhbázpur, (39) Dakshín Sháhpur, (40) Dánistánagar tappá, (41) Daulatpur tappá, (42) Diánatpur tappá, (43) Dohar, (44) Durgápur, (45) Fathijangpur, (46) Fatullápur, (47) Ganj Sakhrábád, (48) Girdbandar, (49) Gobindpur, (50) Gobindpur tappá, (51) Gopálpur tappá, (52) Gunánandí, (53) Habíbpur, (54) Haidarábád tappá, (55) Hájíkhánpur tappá, (56) Hájípur Gopálpur tappá, (57) Hakikatpur tappá, (58) Hasanábád, (59) Hasanábád tappá, (60) Hásárá, (61) Hávilí Jahánábád tappá, (62) Hávilí Mahmúdpur tappá, (63) Hávilí tappá, (64) Hazratpur, (65) Ibádatpur tappá, (66) Ibráhimpur, (67) Ichhápur tappá, (68) Idgáon, (69) Idalpur, (70) Idrakpur, (71) Ikrámpur, (72) Ináyetnagar, (73) Isakhábád, (74) Islámpur, (75) Itbárnagar tappá, (76) Jafarnagar tappá, (77) Jafarujiál, (78) Jahanábád, (79) Jahángírnagar, (80) Jalálpur, (81) Janárddanpur, (82) Juánsháhí, (83) Kalmá tappá, (84) Kámrápur tappá, (85) Kártikpur Shujábád, (86) Káshtaságará tappá, (87) Kásimnagar, (88) Kásimpur, (89) Kásimpur Kalyán Srí, (90) Kásimpur Sásanbásan, (91) Kásipur, (92) Kátármúlya, (93) Káthorábo tappá, (94) Khalilábád, (95) Khalsí tappá, (96) Khánjá Bahádurnagar, (97) Khánpur, (98) Kharagpur, (99) Khizirpur, (100) Kosá, (101) Khurd Dhámrái tappá, (102) Kurikhái tappá, (103) Mádárípur, (104) Maheswardí tappá, (105) Mahiaddípur, (106) Majidpur, (107) Májampur, (108) Maksúdpur, (109) Maksúdpur Bahádurpur tappá, (110) Mirakpúr tappá, (111) Mirakpur Sháhbandar, (112) Mirzápur tappá (113) Mubárakujiál, (114) Muhabbatpur, (115) Muhammadpur, (116) Mukímpur, (117) Mukundiáchar, (118) Mukímábád, (119) Nandlálpur tappá, (120) Nárándiá tappá, (121) Narsinhpur, (122) Nasratsháhí, (123) Nayábád Talipábád, (124) Názírpur tappá, (125) Nikhli tappá, (126) Núrullápur, (127) Páchbhág tappá, (128) Paril tappá, (129) Pátpasár, (130) Pukhariá, (131) Purchandí, (132) Rádhákántpur Khurd tappá, (133) Rái Nandlálpur, (134) Ráipur, (135) Ráipur

tappá, (136) Rájnagar, (137) Rámkrishnapur tappá, (138) Rámpur (139) Rámpur Nayábád, (140) Rámpur Syámpur, (141) Ranbháwá tappá, (142) Ranjáp, (143) Rasidpur, (144) Rasúlpur, (145) Rasúlpur tappá, (146) Rokandpur, (147) Safípur Khurd tappá, (148) Safíaddípur tappá, (149) Sáhibábád, (150) Sayyidpur, (151) Sájápur, (152) Sákhilí tappá, (153) Sáleswarí, (154) Salím Prataáp Sadrpur, (155) Saráil, (156) Satarakhand, (157) Sháhbandar, (158) Sháhfarídnagar tappá, (159) Sháhujiál, (160) Sháhzádpur tilli, (161) Shaistánagar tappá, (162) Sharífpur tappá, (163) Sibpur, (164) Sibpur Syámpur, (165) Sindurí, (166) Singáir, (167) Sinhdhá tappá, (168) Sonárgáon, (169) Srídharpur tappá, (170) Shujábád Kutabpur, (171) Shujánagar tappá, (172) Shujápur Sájápur, (173) Shujápur tappá, (174) Sultán Prataáp, (175) Sultánpur, (176) Syámpur, (177) Tailpur tappá, (178) Taibnagar tappá, (179) Tálibábád, (180) Telihátí, (181) Uttar Sháhpur, (182) Yárpur.

CLIMATE.—The following remarks are extracted from Taylor's "Topography of Dacca" (1839), p. 13 :—"The prevailing winds from April to October are from the east and south-east. In the latter month, when the strength of the monsoon becomes exhausted, the wind is variable, being occasionally either northerly or westerly, although still more frequently from the east and south-east; and towards the end of the month there is almost always a gale or track of stormy weather from the south or east. In April, May, June, and July there is generally a gentle breeze during the early part of the day and at night. The wind abounds with moisture from sweeping over the surface of the large rivers, and it thereby mitigates the heat, rendering the climate comparatively cool and pleasant at this season of the year. During these months a breeze from the east usually brings light showers, but if a gale occurs, it almost invariably sets in from the same quarter. The south and south-west winds generally bring heavy rain although they seldom blow violently. From November to March the wind is from the west, north, and north-west. The most disagreeable weather during the year is experienced in the months of September and October. At this season the wind is generally light and variable, and the atmosphere becomes loaded with moisture and exhalations. During the cold season the nights are generally damp and unpleasant, but at times the sky is clear and dry, on which occasion ice is formed on water exposed to the air in shallow earthen vessels. In connection with the subject of climate may be mentioned the occasional occurrence of earthquakes. In

general the shocks are slight, but at times they have been productive of great loss of life and property. The earthquake in April, 1762 proved very violent at this place, and along the eastern bank of the Meghná as far as Chittagong. At Dacca the rivers and marshes were agitated, and rose high above their usual level, leaving, when they receded, their banks strewed with dead fish. The shocks were accompanied by subterranean hollow noises, and were so severe that a number of houses were thrown down, by which it is said that five hundred persons lost their lives. In 1775 and 1812 there were also severe earthquakes. In the latter year violent shocks were experienced on the 10th April and 11th May, which injured a number of houses and several of the public buildings in the city and at Tezgáon." The average mean monthly temperature during 1866 was as follows:—January, 68·20°; February, 70·73°; March, 83·07°; April, 81·83°; May, 84·70°; June, 84·55°; July, 83·20°; August, 83·34°; September, 85·00°, October, 81·68°; November, 76·91°; December, 67·56°; mean average for the year, 79·23°. The average monthly rainfall between 1850 and 1865 is stated to be as follows:—January, 0·20 inches; February, 0·46 inches; March, 1·35 inches; April, 7·75 inches; May, 10·01 inches; June, 14·11 inches; July, 14·38 inches; August, 13·68 inches; September, 8·48 inches; October, 7·07 inches; November, 0·74 inches, and December, 0·12 inches; total average annual rainfall for the fifteen years, 78·35 inches. In 1866, the total rainfall was only 65·56 inches.

The Report of the Meteorological Department for the year 1871 gives the temperature for that year as follows:—January, highest max. 83·0°, lowest min. 48·5°; mean 67·3°. February, max. 92·0°, min. 54·9°; mean 75·0°. March, max. 96·0°, min. 57·6°; mean 78·5°. April, max. 93·5°, min. 65·4°; mean 81·1°. May, max. 95·4°, min. 65·8°; mean 81·9°. June, max. 91·2°, min. 71·9°; mean 82·7°. July, max. 89·9°, min. 72·4°; mean 82·6°. August, max. 92·8°, min. 73·7°; mean 83·5°. September, max. 91·0°, min. 74·4°; mean 83·4°. October, max. 92·0°, min. 66·9°; mean 81·6°. November, max. 88·0°, min. 57·2°; mean 75·1°. December, max. 82·6°, min. 50°; mean 68·4°. The monthly mean temperature for the four years from 1868 to 1871 is stated by the Meteorological Reporter to have been as follows:—January, 67·5°; February, 72·8°; March, 79·8°; April, 82°; May, 83·6°; June, 83·5°; July, 83·2°; August, 83·8°; September, 83·2°; October, 81·6°; November, 74·9°; and December, 68·5°. The rainfall in 1871 is returned as follows:—January and February, *nil;* March, 3·70

inches; April, 6·40 inches; May, 17·00 inches; June, 19·30 inches; July, 15·70 inches; August, 6·60 inches; September, 8·40 inches; October, 4·80 inches; November and December, *nil;* total rainfall for the year, 81·90 inches. Rain was measured on 105 days in the year. The year 1871 was an unusually wet one, the average rainfall for the previous ten years being 75·23 inches, or 6·67 inches less than that of 1871.

DISEASES.—In my "Statistical Account of Jessor," will be found a narrative of the great outbreak of cholera in 1817, and which, according to Dr Taylor, made its appearance in Dacca at the same time that it did in Jessor. No information exists as to the extent of its ravages. Cholera and small-pox both visit the District occasionally in an epidemic form. The principal endemic diseases common to the District are the following :—Intermittent fever prevails, especially about the commencement and on the cessation of the rains. Remittent fever is frequent in September and October, and throughout the cold season. Elephantiasis is common, particularly about the city and the Ariál swamp in Bikrampur Fiscal Division. Bronchocele is another prevalent disease. Enlargement of the spleen is attributed by the natives to the practice of drinking stagnant marsh water. Dysentery and diarrhœa are very prevalent during the rains and cold season. The other principal diseases are rheumatism, catarrh, hooping-cough, bronchitis, ophthalmia, cutaneous diseases, and intestinal worms. But little improvement seems to have taken place of late years in the health of the town and District from increased sanitary efforts. The following is an extract from a report by the late Civil Surgeon of the District on the subject, dated 6th April 1868, and addressed to the Sanitary Commissioners for Bengal: —"The sanitary condition of all the towns, and of the District generally, is most disgraceful. Each village is worse than its neighbour in proportion to its antiquity. A village newly settled on an open *char* or plain is as a rule salubrious. It may be more liable to epidemics of small-pox and cholera, but it escapes the constant enervating malarious poisoning which older settlements suffer from. Bengalis are so thoughtless and ignorant of sanitary laws, that with their new houses they prepare seeds of future disease. They raise their houses by digging irregular holes, which become the household privy, cesspool, and tank. To protect their females from the eye of the stranger and to provide shade, they surround their plot of land with hedges, which in the course of time become forest trees. These

trees generally bear fruit, become valuable, and are never thinned. As years roll on, the village becomes buried in vegetation, malaria abounds, the inhabitants are enfeebled and unable to cope with the forest around them, an epidemic fever breaks out, and the survivors migrate to new land, where similar habits are followed, and equally fatal epidemics recur. Such is the true chronicle of a Bengal village, and it is difficult to point to any inland town which has not passed through these successive stages. In the towns of the District, sanitary laws are as completely ignored as in the villages. Cesspools are found on the banks of tanks, or within a few feet of a well; the dead are buried in the midst of the living; the sewage is never removed; the rains convey it into the river, whence the only wholesome water is procurable. Vegetation is not eradicated. Tanks are never cleaned; and the drains which do exist are never flushed, and have rarely any outlet. Privies, if made at all, are constructed near a tank, into which the first rain carries the sewage. Such is an unexaggerated description of the condition of Dacca, and of all the large towns at the present time." Under such circumstances, malarious diseases are hardly to be wondered at. The want of sufficient Municipal funds is the great drawback to proper sanitary improvements, but a great deal has been done since the above report was written; and very recently Khwájá Abdul Ganí, C.S.I., made a handsome donation of £5000 towards carrying out further improvements.

INDIGENOUS VEGETABLE DRUGS.—The following list of the principal medicinal plants is abbreviated from Dr Taylor's "Topography of Dacca," to whose accuracy I have to trust:—(1) *Jayantí* (Æschynomene sesban); the juice of the leaves is an anthelmintic, administered in doses of two ounces. (2) *Sonálí* (Cassia fistula); the pulp, mixed with tamarinds, sugar, and rose water, is used as a laxative. (3) *Soná* (Bauhinia purpurea), purple mountain ebony, the wood being used as a remedy in fever. (4) *Kát karaniá* (Cæsalpinia bonducella); the seeds are used as a tonic, and a decoction of the leaves in cases of fever. (5) *Aparájitá* (Clitorea ternata). (6) *Rakta chandan* (Adenanthera pavonia); the seeds and wood are used in the form of a decoction, and as a liniment in pulmonary complaints; it is also used as an application to the eyelids in chronic ophthalmia. (7) *Khayer* (Acacia catechu); the wood is used in cases of chronic cutaneous disease. (8) *Masáni* (Glycine labialis); this plant is used in the composition of a liniment which is in much use in long-standing cutaneous complaints. (9) *Kála kálkásándá* (Cassia purpurea); and

ointment made of the bruised seeds and leaves of the plant, and mixed with sulphur, is used in itch and ringworm. (10) *Golancha* (Sinospora cordifolia); administered internally and externally in cases of leprosy. (11) *Chitá* (Plumbago zeylanica); the root is used in combination with *bistali* in cases of enlarged spleen, and as a tonic in dyspepsia. (12) *Bichuti* (Tragia involucrata); the root is the basis of an external application in cases of leprosy. (13) *Bákas*, or Arus (Justiia adhatoda), or Malabar nut; the juice of the leaves, mixed with juice of fresh ginger, is given as an expectorant in coughs. (14) *Muthá* (Cyperus rotundus); a common jungle grass, the roots of which are pounded with green ginger, and given in cases of dysentery. (15) *Syámlatá* (Ichnocarpus frutescens); the stalks and leaves given as a decoction in fever. (16) *Bhui Kumrá* (Trichosanthes cordata); the root powdered is given in doses of about ten grains in enlargements of the spleen, &c.; the fresh root, mixed with oil, is applied to leprous ulcers. (17) *Sanki* (Achyranthes aspera); boiled with *nim*, &c., to form a medicated vapour-bath in cases of rheumatism. (18) *Bálá* (Hibiscus tortuosus); an astringent and tonic administered in cases of dysentery. (19) *Nágkesar* (Mesuá ferrea); the flowers of this large tree mixed with oil are administered both externally and internally in cases of cough. (20) *Punar-nabá* (Boerhaavia procumbens); a diuretic prescribed in dropsy. (21) *Nishindá* (Vitex negundo); employed both as an internal and external remedy in rheumatism. (22) *Táraká* (Alpinia allughos); a common reed growing in the marshes, the juice of the root of which is prescribed in cases of hemorrhoids. (23) *Hárjorá* (Cissus quadrangularis); the stalks, mixed with ginger or mustard, are applied to bruises and contusions. (24) *Bágrá* (Eclipta prostrata); the juice used in jaundice and gonorrhœa. (25) *Jiriul* (Odina wodier); the juice is given as an emetic in cases of coma or insensibility produced by opium or narcotics. (26) *Tulsí* (Ocimum villosum), or sweet basil; the juice of the leaves, mixed with ginger and black pepper, is given during the cold stage of intermittent fever; it is also prescribed to allay vomiting arising from irritation produced by worms. (27) *Simul* (Bombax heptaphyllum), or cotton-tree; the flowers are given in hemorrhoids. (28) *Champá* (Michelia champaka); the flower, mixed with *til*-seed oil, is applied externally in cases of vertigo; the juice of the leaves being given in cases of colic. (29) *Nágphani* (Opuntia Dillenii); ten drops of the milky juice of the plant are given as a purgative. (30) *Sephálikā* (Nyctanthes arbor tristis), or Indian mourner; the leaves, boiled in sugar

and water, are given as a diaphoretic in fever. (31) *Jabá* (Hibiscus rosa sinensis); the flowers, infused in cold water, are prescribed in cases of menorrhagia. (32) *Pálitámándár* (Erythrina indica); two ounces of the juice of the green leaves are given as a vermifuge and cathartic. (33) *Akanda* (Calotropis gigantea); the root of the bark is commonly used in syphilis and leprosy. (34) *Sij* (Euphorbia nivulia); the milky juice forms a purgative. (35) *Ishánmúl* (Aristolochia indica); the juice of the roots is given in coughs and asthmas. (36) *Kadamba* (Nauclea cadumba); the bruised flowers, mixed with ginger, form a remedy for fistulous sores. (37) *Maturá* (Callicarpa incana); an infusion of the flowers is given in cases of menorrhagia. (38) *Bhikápurni* (Hydrocotyle Asiatica); the juice of the plant, mixed with ginger, is administered in dysentery. (39) *Jaistha madhu* (Glycirrhiza glabra); the root is prescribed to allay thirst in fevers. (40) *Bakul* (Mimusops elengi); the seeds are bruised and made into a paste, and given in cases of obstinate constipation. (41) *Jám takuri* (Sida Asiatica); a decoction of the leaves and branches of this plant is used as a fomentation in phagedenic sores. (42) *Sájiná* (Moringa pterygosperma); the bark of the fresh root, mixed with mustard-seed and green ginger, is used as an external application in rheumatism; it is also administered internally in enlargement of the spleen and in dyspepsia. (43) *Kunduri* (Coccinia Indica); the bark of the root, dried and powdered, is given as a cathartic in a dose of thirty grains. (44) *Patarchur* (Plectranthus secundus); two ounces of the juice of the leaves, mixed with sugar, is given morning and evening in cases of strangury. (45) *Rakta kambal* (Nymphœa lotus); the flowers and stalks of this species of lotus are reduced to powder, which is administered in cases of discharge of blood from the stomach; and (46) the *Sundhi* (Nymphœa stellata), or species with blue flowers, is used in diarrhœa. The other principal medicinal trees and plants that are found in the uncultivated parts of the District are (47) *Jamálgátá* (Croton tiglium); (48) *Kuchilá* (Strychnos nux vomica); (49) *Nim* (Melia azadiracta); (50) *Dhuturá* (Dhatura metel); and (51) *Bherándá* (Ricinus communis).

Cattle Disease.—The following account of cattle disease is extracted from Dr Taylor's valuable work (pp. 359, 360):—"In the hot weather, and especially in seasons of drought, the well-known eruptive disease called *mátá* appears among cattle, and is often very destructive. In the unusually hot and dry weather that occurred in the months of April, May, and June 1837, it occasioned great mor-

tality among the cattle of the District, especially in the northern division, and also in Maimansinh, where several thousands of bullocks perished from it. Cattle disease also prevailed extensively in 1870. A disease somewhat allied to it prevailed at the same time in the Company's depot of elephants at that station. This disease, in most of the cases, was preceded by the refusal of food and a discharge from the urinary passage, to which there succeeded swelling of the glands in several parts of the body, and paralysis of the hinder extremities; while in others it was sudden in its invásion, the elephant, after a fit of tremor or delirious excitement, suddenly dropping. It attacked males and females of different ages, and under different circumstances, with reference to the length of time they had been in the depot, and to their food, drink, and shelter. Twenty-five died in the course of two months, and of ten dissections that took place, all the bodies presented morbid appearances in the head and abdomen, consisting of a highly congested state of the vessels of the pia mater and effusion into the ventricles, and of inflammation of the mucous coat of the stomach and bowels. In many of the cases blood was found extravasated into the ventricles, and in all of them the cerebrum and medulla oblongata were highly vascular, presenting, when cut with the knife, innumerable points, the mouths of divided vessels. The inflammation of the lining membrane of the alimentary canal partook in some measure of an exanthematous character; it showed itself in circular spots of a livid colour, distinct, well defined, and of a character varying from that of a pea to the bulk of a rupee or shilling. The mesenteric glands were greatly enlarged and indurated with an infiltration of serum around them, and in most of the carcases that were opened the lymphatic glands in the regions corresponding to the axilla and inguen presented appearances of disease like that of the mesentery. Worms were found in all the subjects, and consisted of three kinds, viz., the common filaria and two species of distoma. Of the latter, one of the species was distinguished by a depressed disc situated upon its under surface, between the anterior and posterior pores, and covered with innumerable minute points, apparently the mouths of vessels. The only remedy which was likely to be of any use—namely, bloodletting, was tried in one case. A vein in the ear was opened, but as the quantity of blood (1½ lbs.) which was drawn off in this way was too small to be of any avail in arresting the progress of the disease, the experiment was not repeated." Hydrophobia is common among dogs and jackals during the hot weather.

FAIRS AND RELIGIOUS GATHERINGS.—The large trading fair held at Munshíganj in the month of Kártik has been already described. The first day is celebrated by a solemn bathing ceremony in the water of the river, but after this is concluded the subsequent proceedings have a commercial character. The fair usually lasts three weeks, and on a low computation is attended by about fifty thousand persons. Another fair, which is attended by considerable numbers, is held in March or April at Nángalband. The first day of the fair is devoted to bathing and religious ceremonials, after which shops are opened and a brisk trade is carried on for three or four days, when the attendance drops off and the fair closes. A third fair is held at Mánikganj in honour of Siva, and lasts about a week or ten days. The festival of the Janma Ashtami, in honour of the birth of Krishna, is held in the month of August, and attracts a large number of people into the city. Several other fairs or gatherings are held during the year, but the above are the most important. I have been unable to ascertain whether there is any connection between these assemblies and epidemic attacks.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—The Lunatic Asylum is situated at the west end of the town, and was built in 1819. It contains five large wards, seven cells capable of containing four inmates each, and thirty-two solitary cells. According to the scale allowance for jails, the Dacca Asylum is only capable of containing 126 lunatics, but on the 1st July 1867 there were 166 males and 36 females in the building, which was considerably over-crowded; and a new ward has recently been added to meet its requirements. The Districts which send their lunatics to the Dacca asylum are:—Dacca, Maimansinh, Silhet, Káchár, Tipperah, Chittagong, Noákhálí, Bákarganj, Faridpur, Pabná, Bográ, Kuch Behar, and the Province of Assam. The inmates who are tractable and willing to work are employed in keeping the hospital garden in order, carrying water, carpentry, making cane stools, baking, cane-cutting, &c. On an average 73 male patients were thus employed in 1867, besides 35 who were told off for domestic duties. About 26 female patients were employed in cooking, grinding flour, and cleaning the female wards. The remainder were the intractable and idiotic, who do nothing. The establishment consisted of 1 overseer, 1 native doctor, 4 warders (*jamádárs*), 1 female warder, 22 guards, 3 female under-warders, 2 barbers, 1 cook, 10 sweepers, 1 gardener, 2 washermen, and 1 carpenter. The Civil Surgeon of the District is also superintendent of the asylum, and it is inspected by regularly appointed visitors every month. The

average annual number of admissions from 1857 to 1866 was 95, of whom the large majority were afflicted with chronic mania, generally brought on by the smoking of *ganjá* (hemp). The average annual mortality during the ten years ending 1866 was 8·93 per cent.

The Mitford Hospital was founded by a bequest of the late Mr Mitford of the Bengal Civil Service, and was opened on the 1st May 1858. The hospital stands within its own grounds by the river side; the buildings are well planned; the wards roomy, lofty, and well ventilated; the beds arranged at convenient intervals. Excepting in Calcutta and its suburbs, this hospital was said in 1867 to be the best in Lower Bengal. It is managed by a Committee of Visitors consisting of the Covenanted English Officers, and four of the most influential native residents of Dácca. It derives its support from the interest of £16,600 left by the founder, and from a monthly grant from Government. In 1871 the daily average of outdoor patients was 57·42, and of indoor, 58·29. The establishment consisted in 1867 of 1 sub-assistant surgeon, 1 native doctor, 1 compounder, 4 dressers, 1 female dresser, 2 cooks, 2 coolies, 4 sweepers, 1 door-keeper, and 1 gardener. The whole is under the general superintendence of the Civil Surgeon.

The Langar Kháná, or Almshouse, was founded by Khwájá Abdul Ganí; opened April 1866. In 1867 it contained 20 males, 16 females, and 6 children, the majority of whom were blind or lame. A native doctor attends them, and each inmate is provided with food, clothes, and a room. The only condition that a person has to make on admission is that he will become a permanent inmate. After admission he is forbidden to beg. There are no outdoor recipients of this charity.

There are five charitable dispensaries in the District—one at Jaidebpur in Bháwál, established and maintained by the liberality of Bábu Kálí Náráyan Chaudhrí, Rái Bahádur; the second at Jaunsár in Bikrampur Fiscal Division, founded and partly supported by a native gentleman, the Small Cause Court Judge at Dacca, the native doctor's salary being paid by Government; a third at the Sub-divisional town of Mánikganj, the salary of the native doctor attached to it being paid by Government, and the other expenses met by monthly subscriptions. The Bhágákul Dispensary was opened in 1868, and Kálípárá Dispensary in May 1870; at both, the Government contributes the salary of the native doctor in charge, and also a small supply of European medicines free of cost. The following table illustrates the Medical Charities of Dacca, and the amount expended in the relief of the sick in 1871.

STATISTICS OF THE MEDICAL CHARITIES IN THE DACCA DISTRICT FOR 1871.

Dispensaries.	Year in which established.	Indoor patients.						Outdoor patients.		Operations.		Total income.	Cost to Government for salaries, &c.	Cost to Government on account of European medicines.	Income from subscriptions and other local sources.	Expenditure, excluding European medicines supplied by Government free of charge.
		Total treated.	Relieved or recovered.	Died.	Remaining at the end of the year.	Percentage of deaths to treated.	Daily average number of sick.	Total treated.	Average daily attendance.	Capital.	Minor.					
												£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. Dacca Mitford Hospital, . .	1858	1076	865	178	33	16·54	58·29	11,711	57·42	71	12	1278 16 7	542 19 4	...	735 17 3	1421 18 2
2. Jaidebpur Branch Dispensary, . .	...	13	11	2	...	15·38	·01	1,107	5·97	...	65	96 0 0	48 0 0	3 11 7	48 0 0	86 15 6
3. Jaunsár Branch Dispensary, . .	1866	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,221	16·56	2	163	88 18 0	48 0 0	8 0 10	40 18 0	87 7 4
4. Bhágákul Branch Dispensary, . .	1868	3	3	...	...	...	·91	1,876	11·01	8	101	96 0 0	48 0 0	6 7 5	48 0 0	85 19 5
5. Mánikganj Branch Dispensary, . .	1864	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,362	30·54	...	...	27 7 11	6 12 8	3 6 4	20 15 3	28 11 9
6. Kálípárá Branch Dispensary, . .	1870	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,455	15·90	...	...	56 7 1	21 15 9	6 0 6	34 11 3	50 13 8
		1092	879	180	33	16·48	...	20,732	...	81	341	1643 9 5	715 7 9	27 6 8	928 1 9	1761 5 10

The following paragraphs illustrate more in detail the amount of medical relief afforded by the charitable institutions quoted in the foregoing table. The information is taken from the Reports on the "Charitable Dispensaries under the Government of Bengal," for the years 1871 and 1872.

THE MITFORD HOSPITAL is the largest and most important of the medical institutions in Eastern Bengal, and the arrangements for treating the sick, dieting and nursing, are excellent. In 1871 the total number of indoor patients treated in the hospital amounted to 1076, of whom 865 recovered or were relieved, 178 died, and 33 remained at the end of the year; average daily number of sick, 58·29. The outdoor patients receiving treatment in the same year amounted to 11,711, the average daily attendance being 57·42. In the following year (1872), the figures of relief were as follows:—Indoor patients, 1052; relieved or recovered, 795; not improved, 24; died, 176; remaining in hospital at end of the year, 57; average daily number of sick, 47·02. The outdoor patients numbered 12,817 in 1872, the average daily attendance being 58·45. The mortality among the indoor patients of the hospital has always been considerable, amounting to 16·54 per cent. of the total patients treated in 1871, and to 16·73 per cent. in 1872. This, however, is, to a large extent, owing to the fact that all pauper moribund cases picked up in the streets are entered. A municipal pauper hospital for the reception of such cases is a work urgently needed. Within the last few years an attempt has been made to introduce trained native *dhais* (midwives) among the people of Bengal; and in 1870 the Mitford Hospital was one of the institutions selected for the purpose of giving obstetric instruction to females. Three native midwives were accordingly attached to the hospital under the orders of Government, and received a course of training; but the lower classes could not overcome their prejudices so as to permit their females to be treated by skilled midwives educated on English principles, and the experiment proved a failure.

JAIDEBPUR DISPENSARY was established in 1866. It is situated in Bháwál Fiscal Division, in the immediate vicinity of the residence of the *zamíndár*, who takes great interest in the welfare of the institution. There are no villages of any size in the neighbourhood, and the attendance is not large; but *rayats* and others who come to Jaidebpur often make their visit an occasion for bringing with them their sick relatives and neighbours. The hospital subscriptions are

regularly paid, and at the end of 1872 there was a surplus of £32 in hand. The building is kept in good order, with accommodation for indoor patients. In 1871 the indoor patients numbered 13, of whom 11 recovered or were relieved, and 2 died. The outdoor patients receiving treatment in the same year amounted to 1107, the average daily attendance being 5·97. The figures for 1872 are as follow:—Indoor patients, 19, of whom 16 were discharged cured and 3 relieved. Outdoor patients treated, 1093; average daily attendance, 4·16. The prevailing diseases in 1872 were ague, rheumatic affections, constipation, boils, and ulcers.

JAUNSAR BRANCH DISPENSARY was established in 1866. It is situated in a populous part of Bikrámpur Fiscal Division, and is resorted to by patients from long distances. The Civil Surgeon, however, states that this is the only Dispensary in the District that languishes, owing to non-punctuality of payment by the subscribers, most of whom are non-resident. A corner of the Dispensary is screened off to afford accommodation for one indoor patient, but further hospital accommodation is urgently required. In 1871, 2221 persons received outdoor treatment, the average daily attendance being 16·56. In 1872, 2 indoor and 2416 outdoor patients were treated; average daily attendance, 20·15. The prevailing diseases are fevers, rheumatisms, coughs, and bowel complaints. Of late years cholera has been almost unknown in the neighbourhood of Jaunsar; and throughout Bikrámpur Fiscal Division the people assert that the disease has been less frequent since 1868 than they ever recollect it to have been.

BHÁGÁKUL BRANCH DISPENSARY, established in 1868 in an unhealthy locality in the neighbourhood of large marshes (*jhíls*), and in the midst of a large tract which is inundated for four months every year. The diseases are those generally met with in a damp, unhealthy tract; fevers and spleen diseases are the most common complaints, next to which come diarrhœa and dysentery. There is no separate accommodation at the Dispensary for in-patients, but in an emergency a portion of the verandah is partitioned off and the sick person lodged. In 1871, 1876 persons received outdoor treatment; average daily attendance, 11·01. In 1872, 1 indoor and 2456 outdoor patients were treated, the average daily attendance being 12·16. The financial condition of the Dispensary is said to be good, and the subscriptions regularly paid.

MÁNIKGANJ BRANCH DISPENSARY, established in 1864. The Dis-

pensary is situated in a very inaccessible part of the District, and consequently not very attractive to the people, although the attendance has considerably increased of late years. The surrounding villages, too, are small, and the population generally healthy. Besides, the Dispensary has to compete with two *kabirajs* of great reputation who reside in the immediate neighbourhood, and distribute medicines among the poor gratis. In 1871, 2362 persons received outdoor treatment at the Dispensary, the average daily attendance being 30·54. In the following year the number of out-patients increased to 3348, and the average daily attendance to 35. Want of funds has hitherto precluded the erection of a hospital ward for indoor patients, but it is hoped that this will shortly be supplied.

KÁLIPÁRÁ BRANCH DISPENSARY, established in May 1870, temporarily closed in April 1871, and re-opened in August 1871. With regard to this institution, the Civil Surgeon states as follows:—"The native doctor has many difficulties to contend with in making the institution popular. The large majority of the inhabitants are Kulin Bráhmans, who resent any innovation, and who prefer being treated by the *kabiraj* instead of by the native doctor. Native physicians, with or without education, are numerous, and they secure most of the practice. Allowing for these difficulties, the attendance is good. The country round Kálipárá is, if possible, more insalubrious than Bhágákul. It has one great advantage, however, in being situated on the banks of the Pudda river, which during the rains is eight miles broad. Fevers, rheumatism, and disorders of the digestive system are the most prevalent diseases." In 1871, 1455 outdoor patients were treated, the average daily attendance being 15·90. In 1872, 1 indoor and 2060 outdoor patients received treatment; average daily attendance, 14·19.

MÁLUCHÁ BRANCH DISPENSARY, established in December 1872 out of the bequest of a native gentleman belonging to the village, who left property to the value of £500 to cover the expense of constructing the Dispensary and a road from it to the village. The Dispensary building is of brick, and consists of three rooms—one in the centre for the Dispensary stores and reception of out-patients, and the two side rooms for male and female in-patients respectively. This institution will supply medical aid to a portion of the country which was formerly without any; and during December 1872, the first month it was opened, no less than 1073 patients were treated, the average daily attendance being 103·9.

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December 1874.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF BÁKARGANJ.

of Dacca and Faridpur, from which it is separated by the Padmá and Mainákátíkhál rivers; on the east by the Meghná and Sháhbázpur rivers and by the Bay of Bengal, which separates it from Noákhálí and Tipperah; on the south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by Faridpur District and by the Baleswar or Haringhátá river, which separates it from Jessor and partly from Faridpur.

JURISDICTION.—Previous to 1817 Bákarganj formed part of the Dacca Collectorate, but was under a Judge and Magistrate of its own, whose Headquarters were first at the town of Bákarganj, near the junction of the Krishnakátí and the Khairábád rivers, in N. latitude 22° 32′ 45″, and longitude 90° 23′ 10″ E. This station is now in ruins, and all that remains is a side wall of what was once the Magistrate's Court, and one which probably belonged to the jail. In 1801 the Headquarters were transferred to Barisál, their present seat. The jurisdiction of the Judge and Magistrate, according to a letter of the Collector dated 26th September 1800, comprised the following ten police circles (*thánás*):—Banphal, Khelá Khálí or Kan Khálí, Angariá, Tugrá, Chandiá or Sandwíp, Bokáinagar, Nalchirá Kachuá, Khalsá Khálí, and Baraikaran. The early records show that the criminal jurisdiction of the District was extremely irregular. In 1861 the Baleswar or Haringhátá river was made the western boundary, the whole of the police circle (*tháná*) of Kachuá was transferred to Jessor, and the villages east of the Madhumatí, a local name for the Baleswar or Haringhátá river in the upper portion of its course in the District, were transferred to Bákarganj. On the 1st April 1869, in accordance with the Government notification dated the 16th January previous, and in compliance with the request of the inhabitants, the large island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur and the adjacent sandbanks (*chars*) and islands, of which Mánpurá island is the chief, and which had previously been subject only to the civil jurisdiction of the District, were transferred from Noákhálí. Even at the present day there are several discrepancies between the limits of the magisterial, revenue, and civil jurisdictions. In the northern part of the District some villages of the Subdivision of Mádárípur lie within the criminal jurisdiction of Faridpur, and the civil and revenue jurisdiction of Bákarganj.

THE GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DISTRICT is that of a flat even country dotted with clusters of bamboos and betel-nut trees, and intersected by a perfect network of dark-coloured sluggish streams. There is not a hill or hillock in the whole District, but its scenery

derives a beauty from the wide expanse of cultivation and the greenness and freshness of the vegetation. This is especially conspicuous in the rains, but at no time of the year does the District present the burnt-up appearance of inner India. The villages, which are always walled round by groves of bamboos and betel-nut palms, have a very picturesque appearance; and Bákarganj has many beauties of detail which strike a traveller in passing through it. The level of the country is generally very low, and the rivers, streams, and watercourses are so numerous that it is difficult to get about except by boat at any season of the year. Probably the highest part of the District is the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, situated in the estuary of the Meghná; and at all events, it is easier to travel there on foot during the rains than in almost any other part of the District. Every natural hollow is full of water, around the margin of which long grasses, reeds, and other aquatic plants grow in the greatest profusion, often making it difficult to say where the land ends and where the water begins. Towards the north-west, near Faridpur, and within the jurisdiction of the Kotwálípárá police circle, the country is very marshy; and nothing is to be seen for miles but tracts of unreclaimed swamps and rice lands, with a few huts scattered here and there, and raised on mounds of earth. In the south of the District, along the sea face of the Bay of Bengal, are the Sundarbans. There is a good deal of tree jungle in Srámpur and Uttar Sháhbázpur, but with these exceptions jungle or low forest is seldom met with; and, except in the marshes of Kotwálípárá, there is not much waste land. Speaking generally, the District is a very fertile one, producing immense quantities of rice. The general slope of the country is from north to south, but it is very slight.

RIVER SYSTEM.—One peculiarity of the rivers of Bákarganj is, that, with one or two exceptions, they seldom retain the same name for many miles, and generally take a new one whenever they come to an important town or village. The principal rivers are the Meghná, the Ariál Khán, and the Baleswar, but the offshots from them are almost innumerable. (1) The Meghná touches the District on its north-east corner, near the point where it is joined on its east bank by the Padmá (which flows into it from the north-west, and is considered to be the main channel of the Ganges). The united stream then flows in a southerly direction for about a hundred miles, and empties itself into the Bay of Bengal. During the latter part of its course, this

noble river expands into a large estuary, containing the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur and the other islands which were recently transferred to the District. The estuary has various names, and in different parts of its course is called the Sátbáriá, the Bokáinagar, the Ilsá, the Tetuliá, and the Sháhbázpur river. (2) The Ariál Khán is a branch of the great river Padmá, or Ganges, from which it diverges near the town of Faridpur. It enters this District in the north at Mádárípur, and flows generally in a south-easterly direction till it empties itself into the channel of the Meghná at Mirzáganj, and contributes considerably to the formation of the Meghná estuary. The main channel of the Ariál Khán is about 1700 yards wide in the dry season, and from 2000 to 3000 yards in the rains. It is navigable throughout the year for native craft of large size. It receives a number of tributaries, and sends out several offshoots during its course. (3) The Baleswar or Haringhátá river is also a distributary of the Ganges. It leaves the parent stream at Kushtiá, where it is called the Garai, but lower down it becomes the Madhumatí or Barásiá, which changes to Baleswar lower down where it enters Bákarganj, and to Haringhátá when it approaches the sea. It enters Bákarganj near the north-west corner of the District, at a place called Gopálganj, from whence it forms the western boundary of the District, and runs south, but with great windings in its upper reaches, till it crosses the Sundarbans, and finally falls into the Bay of Bengal as a large and deep estuary, capable of receiving merchant ships of considerable burden. In the whole of its course throughout the District, the river is navigable by native boats of large tonnage, and by sea-going ships as high up as Morrellganj, in the neighbouring District of Jessor. A full description of this river and of its capabilities for navigation will be found in my "Statistical Account of Jessor District." Among its many tributaries in Bákarganj the most important is the Kachá, itself a considerable stream, navigable by large boats all the year round, and flowing in a southerly direction from Kewárí, where it branches off from another stream, for about twenty miles, when it falls into the Baleswar.

The Barisál river is an offshoot from the Ariál Khán, flowing in a southerly direction, but with a very winding course, past the town of Barisál, soon after which it loses its name, and is called the Bíshkhálí, and runs to the south-west, falling into the sea near the Haringhátá. A branch of the Barisál river, called the Nalchití river, flows from a little below the town of Barisál westwards to Jhálakátí, a dis-

tance of fourteen miles, where it turns to the south and takes another name. Another branch leaves the Barisál opposite Nalchití, and flows eastwards till it falls into the Ariál Khán, at its junction with the Meghná. The Khairábád river flows south from the Barisál at Ránihát, passing by Bákarganj and Patuákhálí to Angariáhát, a distance of twenty-two miles, whence it continues as the Nahaliá river by a tortuous course, sometimes running south-east and sometimes south-west, for fourteen miles as far as Patuákhálí; after which it is called the Galáchipá or Rábnábád river, and flows a course of twenty miles, generally from north to south, till it falls into the Bay of Bengal just north of the Rábnábád islands. A branch of this river, called the Patuákhálí, flows west and south-west to Gilábonā for ten miles; then it turns to the south, under the name of the Beghái, for another twelve miles; and then to the south-west through the Sundarbans, under the name of the Buríswar, for twenty-two miles, till it falls into the sea near the Bíshkhálí mouth. The Ghágar rises in the Kotwálípárá marshes, and flows south into the Madhumatí or Baleswar; it is called the Sildaha river in the lower part of its course. The Kumár river forms a portion of the northern boundary of the District, and flows eastwards into the Ariál Khán at Mádárípur.

The foregoing are all large rivers, navigable throughout the year by boats of large tonnage. The confusion arising from the frequent change of name in different parts of each river's course is very great, and makes it almost impossible to give a correct list of all the streams in such a way as to clearly explain the river system of the District. With regard to the frequent change of name of the same river, Colonel Gastrell, in his "Geographical and Statistical Report of the Districts of Jessor, Faridpur, and Bákarganj," page 43, states that "one general name for a river, no matter of what size, is seldom if ever found. The names change continually, and in many parts the villagers on one bank, if asked the name of the stream, give it one designation, whilst those on the opposite side give it a totally different one. Again, entering a *khál* at one end and inquiring the name, it is common to hear the name of the nearest market given to it; but enter from the other end, and ask the same question, and then supposing more markets than one be established along the *khál*, the villagers will give the name of the one nearest their end."

The frequent change of name of the same river is strikingly exemplified in the following list, extracted from Colonel Gastrell's "Geographical and Statistical Report of the Districts of Jessor,

Faríḍpur, and Bákarganj." Each individual stream is given according to the local name it bears at different parts of its course, as ascertained by the Survey Authorities in 1863.

(1.) THE KUMÁR RIVER forms a part of the northern boundary of the District, running from east to west for a distance of 16 miles, extending from the village of Nasípur to Mádárípur; average width during the dry season, 200 yards.

(2.) SRÍKOL DON, a cross stream from the Kapálbárá Khál to the Agarpur Nádí, runs north and south for a distance of 3½ miles; average width during the dry season, 40 yards.

(3.) AMTALÁ GÁNG, from the Agarpur Nadí to the Raphiádí river, runs north and south for 3¾ miles; average width during the dry season, 100 yards.

(4.) ARIÁL KHÁN RIVER, extending from Kulpadí to Mirzáganj, takes a course from north to south for a distance of 61½ miles; average width, about 1700 yards during the dry season, and from 2000 to 3000 yards in the rains.

(5.) NAYÁRHÁNGÍ, reaches from the Ariál Khán river at Kálínagar, to the Meghná river, running north-east and south-west for a distance of 22 miles; average width, 800 yards in the dry season, and from 1000 to 1200 yards in the rains.

(6.) BHAIRÁ RIVER, runs from Guábkholá to the Meghná river at Umedpur Márchátalí, from north-east to south-west, a distance of 15½ miles; average width, 500 yards in the dry season, and 800 yards in the rains.

(7.) MEGHNÁ RIVER, from Náráyanpur to Gobindpur, 24½ miles from north to south; average width, 6000 yards in the dry season, and 8000 yards in the rains.

(8.) AGARPUR NADÍ, reaches from the Srikol Don to the Amtalá Gáng, following a course of seven miles from north to south; average width in the dry season, 50 yards.

(9.) PHULTALÁ GÁNG, a cross stream from the Ariál Khán river, to the Raphiádí river from west to east, distance 2 miles; average width, 300 yards in the dry season, and 500 yards in the rains.

(10.) KEDÁRPUR NADÍ, connects the Bhutardiá Khál with the Phultalá Gáng, and runs a distance of 4 miles from north to south; average width, 300 yards in the dry season, and 400 yards in the rains.

(11.) PÁNGÁSÍ NADÍ, runs north and south for 6¾ miles, and connects the Ariál Khán river with the Tarkí Nadí; average width in the dry season, 400 yards.

(12.) KALKINI DON, reaching from the Adháchar Khál to the Pángásí Nadí, running from north to south, a distance of 3¼ miles; average width, 100 yards in the dry season, and 150 yards in the rains.

(13.) TARKÍ NADÍ, running from the Pángásí Nadí to Piprákátí, a distance of 4½ miles from north to south; average width in the dry season, 80 yards.

(14.) PHÁSÁTALÍ DON, running north and south from the Ariál Khán river to the Pángásí Nadí, a distance of 4⅓ miles; average width, 60 yards in the dry season, and 80 yards in the rains.

(15.) GAJARIÁ KHÁL, running north and south from the Ariál Khán river to the Phásátalí Don, a distance of 3½ miles; average width, 60 yards in the dry season, and 80 yards in the rains.

(16.) RAPHIÁDÍ BARISÁL, running a course of 22 miles north and south from Phultalá, at the mouth of the Amtalá river, to Charámudí, at the mouth of the Nalchití river; average width in the dry season, from 600 to 700 yards.

(17.) NALCHITÍ RIVER, from Nalchití to Jhálakátí, runs a course of 14 miles east and west; average width in the dry season, 400 yards.

(18.) BOKÁINAGAR RIVER, from Barisál town to Bokáinagar Hát, runs a course of 10 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season, from 200 to 300 yards.

(19.) CHARÁMUDÍ RIVER, from Charámudí to Nehálganj, runs a course of 12 miles from west to east; average width from 150 to 200 yards in the dry season.

(20.) DÁMODAR RIVER, from Lokákátí Hát to Pirozpur, runs east and west for a distance of 5 or 6 miles; average width in the dry season, from 80 to 100 yards.

(21.) KÁLÍJIRA DON, from Nalchití to Panchkaran, flows from north-west to south-east for 14 miles; average width in the dry season, from 100 to 200 yards.

(22.) JANGALIÁ, GARTÁ, AND SATARIÁ RIVERS, extending from Ḳaukhálí Hát to the Gujaliá river, a distance of 18 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season, 100 yards.

(23.) DHANSIDI RIVER, extending from Bakurí Paschim char to Gábkhái river, a distance of 7 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season, 80 yards.

(24.) GUJALIÁ RIVER, running from Jhálakátí Hát to Nayámáti Hát, 16 miles from north to south; average width from 300 to 400 yards.

(25.) KÁLÍGANGÁ RIVER, flowing from Kewárí to Sánkhárí Kúti Hát, 14 miles from north to south; average width from 300 to 400 yards.

(26.) KRISHNÁKÁLÍ KHÁL, flows from Jhálakátí to Panchkaran, a distance of 12 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season, 30 yards.

(27.) SHIKÁRPUR KHÁL, extending from Panchkaran to Srikol, about 12 miles in length, and running a course from north-east to south-west; average width, 30 yards in the dry season.

(28.) JHÁLAKÁTÍ BHARNÍ, running from Jhálakátí to Kaukhálí, in a direction from east to west for 12 or 14 miles; average width, 30 yards in the dry season.

(29.) MENDIGANJ RIVER, running a course of 12 miles east and west from Lálganj to Dharmganj; average width in the dry season, from 500 to 600 yards.

(30.) LATÁGÁNG and BURÍGANJ, running a course from east to west of 8 miles from Alibáz to Dharmpur; average width, from 400 to 500 yards in the dry season.

(31.) HAILFÁ NADÍ, a continuation of the foregoing, runs a course of 8 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season, 200 yards.

(32.) MOSHKÁTÁ CHANNEL, extending from Moshkátá Hát to Madanganj Hát, running from east to west a course of 6 miles; average width in the dry season, from 200 to 300 yards.

(33.) KALINGÁ RIVER, extending from Gobindpur to Chhota Lakshmí char, running a course of 16½ miles from north to south; average width, 1800 yards in the dry season, and 2000 yards in the rains.

(34.) ILSÁ RIVER, extending from Chhota Lakshmí char to Lakshmí char, running a course of 2 miles from north to south; average width, 2500 yards in the dry season, and 3000 yards in the rains.

(35.) TETULIÁ RIVER, extending from the mouth of the Ariál Khán river to the sea, running from north to south a course of 30 miles; average width, 5000 yards in the dry season, and 6000 yards in the rains.

(36.) BALESWAR or HARINGHÁTÁ RIVER, reaching from Pirozpur to the sea, running north and south for 60 miles; width from 1000 to 3000 yards in the dry season.

(37.) BÍSHKHÁLÍ RIVER, extending from Nayámáti Hát to the sea, and running a course from north-east to south-west for 45 miles; average width in the dry season, 1000 yards.

(38.) KACHUA or KACHÁ RIVER, running a course of 20 miles north and south from Kewárí to the Baleśwar river; average width in the dry season, 800 yards.

(39.) KHAIRÁBÁD RIVER, running from the mouth of the Barisál river to Angariá Hát, a course of 22 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season, 350 yards.

(40.) PÁNDAB RIVER, reaching from Dariál Hát to Husainpur Hát, a course of 23 miles from north-east to south-west; average width in the dry season from 200 to 300 yards.

(41.) RÁJGANJ RIVER, reaching from Angariá to Gilábonā, a course of 15 miles from north-east to south-west; average width, 300 yards in the dry season.

(42.) ANGARIÁ RIVER, reaching from the Rájganj river to Nahaliá, a course of 3 miles from north-east to south-west; average width in the dry season, 300 yards.

(43.) NAHALIÁ RIVER, reaching from Kadamtalá Hát to Patuákhálí, a course of 14 miles from north-west and north-east to south-east and south-west; average width in the dry season, 400 yards.

(44.) MURÁDIÁ DON, reaching from Kadamtalá to Kalan, a course of 8 miles from north-east to south-west; average width in the dry season, 100 yards.

(45.) PATUÁKHÁLÍ RIVER, reaching from Gilábonā to Patuákhálí, a course of 10 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season, 300 yards.

(46.) BIGHÁI RIVER, reaching from Mirzáganj to Gulshákhálí Hát, a course of 12 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season from 800 to 1000 yards.

(47.) BHÁDURÁ RIVER, reaching from Ailá to Bhádurá Hát, a course of 12 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season from 800 to 1000 yards.

(48.) BURÍSWAR RIVER, reaching from Amtalí Hát to the sea, a course of 22 miles from north-east to south-west; average width in the dry season, 1700 yards.

(49.) AILÁ RIVER, reaching from Amtalí Hát to Chándkhálí Hát, a course of 14 miles from east to west; average width in the dry season, 1700 yards.

(50.) KHÁG DON, reaching from Chándkhálí to Uttar Bargomá, a course of 14 miles from east to west; average width, 800 yards in the dry season, and 1000 yards in the rains.

(51.) GALÁCHIPÁ RIVER, reaching from Galáchipá to the sea, a

course of 20 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season from 700 to 800 yards.

(52.) ANDHÁRMÁNIK RIVER, reaching from the Ailá river to the sea, a course of 24 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season from 400 to 500 yards.

(53.) AMUÁ DON, reaching from Amuá to Srikalyán, a course of 14 miles from east to west; average width in the dry season, 100 yards.

(54.) TAGRÁ DON, reaching from the Baleswar river to Tagrá, a course of 3 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season from 60 to 70 yards.

(55.) SAPLÁJÁ DON, reaching from the Baleswar river to Mathbáriá, a course of 12 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season, 80 yards.

(56.) HALTÁ DON, reaching from the Baleswar river to the Sundarbans, a course of 14 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season, 100 yards.

(57.) CHARKHÁLÍ DON, reaching from Charkhálí Sát Chaukí to Angariá, a course of 16 miles from west to east; average width in the dry season, 50 yards.

(58.) KRISHNAKÁTÍ RIVER, reaching from Bákarganj Hát to Mirzáganj, a course of 19 miles from north-east to south-west; average width in the dry season from 80 to 100 yards.

(59.) BÍSHKHÁLÍ DON, reaching from Nayámáti Hát to Kotar Hát, a course of 14 miles from south west to north-east; average width in the dry season from 80 to 100 yards.

(60.) DHULIÁ DON, reaching from Dhuliá to Pánuárá Hát, a course of 6 miles from south-east to south-west; average width in the dry season, 200 yards.

(61.) ALGÍ GHÁZÍ MÁJIÁ, and KÁLNÁ RIVER, reaching from Pánuárá Hát to the Tetuliá river, a course of 16 miles from north to south; average width in the dry season, 200 yards.

The whole of the foregoing rivers are reported navigable throughout the year by native craft of fifty tons burden.

TIDES.—All the rivers in the District are subject to tidal action from two sources; from the Meghná on the north, and from the Bay of Bengal on the south. With very few exceptions they are navigable at high tide for country boats of all sizes. Some of them may be too narrow for large boats, but the Collector doubts whether any of them are too shallow at flood tide. The rise of the tide is very consider-

able in the estuary of the Meghná, and many of the channels and creeks in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, which are almost dry at ebb tide, contain eighteen or nineteen feet of water at the flood. It is impossible to give even a rough estimate of the number of rivers navigable by native boats of two tons burden during the rains, but the Collector thinks that there is not a single watercourse in the whole District which is not navigable by boats of this size at high water during the rainy season. In the rains nearly the whole country is under water, and the same often occurs in many places during a high spring tide. Almost every peasant has his boat, which he uses once or twice every week to take him to market.

THE BORE.—There is a very strong "*bore*" at spring tides in the estuary of the Meghná, and at that season the boatmen will hardly venture out into the big river. The Collector of the District states that he was once detained for two or three days from this cause on the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, and forced to patiently contemplate from the shore the great wave rushing up the estuary in a mass of fourteen or fifteen feet high. There are in fact two bores, one called by the natives the Chittagong bore, and the other the Daliá bore. The first passes up the channel between Sandwíp and the mainland, turns westward round the north of that island, and then flows to the south along the east side of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, where it is met about half way down by the Daliá bore, which turns it back again. The Daliá bore rushes up the east side of Dakshín Sháhbázpur between it and Háthiá island, and is an hour or so in advance of the Chittagong tide. This bore, on its way up the coast of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, enters all the watercourses or creeks in the island, and is very perceptibly felt at Daulat Khán some distance in the interior. According to the natives, loud noises like thunder are often heard far out at sea at about the time the bore comes in. The bore is dangerous to boats in shallow water, and the Collector conjectures that the difference in the levels of the estuary may be a main cause of its occurrence; as wherever the water is shallow, the bore rises up like a wall and sweeps everything before it, while in deep water it is not very perceptible.

ALLUVION AND DILUVION are constantly taking place, especially towards the east, where the District is washed by the great stream of the Meghná. On the north and east of the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur the land is being rapidly cut away; and every year many homesteads, with their groves of betel-nut and cocoa-nut

palms, fall into the river. The north-east of the island presents a very desolate appearance from this cause; all along the shore are seen deserted homesteads, fruit trees fallen down and half submerged, and the broken sides of tanks which have become useless from the entrance of the salt water. On the other hand, large alluvial accretions are being formed in the estuary, and about the mouth of the river, the names of many of which, such as Alexander char, Falcon char, Brown char, Drummond char, Victoria char, Lord Hardinge's char, &c., indicate their recent origin.

CHANGES OF RIVER COURSES, &c.—The river Nayábhángí (literary, newly broken), also called the Harináthápur river, which connects the Ariál Khán and Meghná rivers, is, as its name implies, a new channel, said to have been formed by the Meghná in a single night in the year 1794. This channel is now silting up. The river Padmá or Ganges formerly flowed through this District before the sudden opening out of the Kirtinásá, and its old bed is still visible in the north-east of the District, within the jurisdiction of the Police outpost of Burirhát. Beyond these instances, no precise information exists of any sudden change in the course of a river. The banks of the rivers are generally low and flat, and more like the banks of canals than of rivers. They have seldom much slope, but in some cases the bank is high and abrupt, while on the other side it is low. Several large islands are formed by the estuary of the Meghná, of which the most important within the jurisdiction of Bákarganj are Dakshín Sháhbázpur, Mánpurá, Bhádurá, and Rábnábád islands. None of the larger rivers are fordable at any season of the year, but the small creeks and water-courses are often fordable at low tide. However, as there are hardly any roads, and everybody has his own boat, the absence of fords is not of much consequence.

LAKES, MARSHES, &c.—There are no lakes in Bákarganj, in the sense of large clear sheets of fresh water, but there are numerous marshes or *bils* in the north-western tracts, as well as in other parts of the District. Such *bils* are often of great size and depth, abounding in fish, and, during the rainy season, widely overspread the land. The following is a list of the principal of these marshes, with their estimated ordinary area:—(1) Adampurá, area 2·51 square miles; (2) Ashkár, 5·60 square miles; (3) Bághiá, 30·39 square miles; (4) Balbárídaluá, 39·45 square miles; (5) Baldiá, 18·90 square miles; (6) Bámá, 8·22 square miles; (7) Dupurá, 6·90 square

miles; (8) Daumrá, 3·25 square miles; (9) Dharindi, 1·42 square miles; (10) Hartá, 9·45 square miles; (11) Janjharia, 8·25 square miles; (12) Kaláreja, 5·65 square miles; (13) Rámsil, 21·61 square miles; (14) Rámpur Chihariá, 19·4 square miles; (15) Sálti, 24·71 square miles; and (16) Sujá, 2·21 square miles. A peculiar circumstance with regard to some of these marshes is thus described in Colonel Gastrell's Report:—"In some of the swamps, especially in those of Bákarganj, the surface growth of aquatic plants, mixed with drift weeds, grasses, and rice stalks, increase annually, and in process of time a crust is formed capable of supporting human beings, and on which rice is cultivated. Small floating patches are thus formed, and the natives assert that in very strong winds these are sometimes carried from one side of the swamp to the other, and are a cause of great dispute. This story was corroborated by a Government official, whose duties often took him into these swamps. He mentioned also, that the first time he found himself on ground of this kind, and being totally unaware of its nature, he was greatly alarmed at feeling, as he thought, the earth moving beneath him; and still more astonished when, on seeking information from the inhabitants, he was told 'it was only the tide coming in.' It is not uncommon for the owners of these floating fields to make holes through them, and catch the fish which may be in the neighbourhood, and which are immediately attracted by the light."

CANALS, &c.—The following is a list of the principal artificial watercourses in the District:—(1) Mánik Mudí Khál, in Idalpur Fiscal Division, and to the east of the town of Barisál. It is about five miles in length, and runs from north to south, connecting the Durgápur and Nehálganj rivers, one end being at Jidalun village and the other at Nehálganj. This khál, which is silting up, and now only navigable in the rains, was cut by one Mánik Mudí, the founder of the present family of the landholders of Madhabpasá. (2) The Lákhutiá Khál, running from Barisál northwards to Lákhutiá, about six miles in length, was cut by Ráj Chandra Rái of Lákhutiá. It is only navigable in the rainy season. (3) A very important watercourse has recently been constructed in the Kotwálípárá police circle, within the subdivision of Mádáripur, at the expense of the Narál landholders of the neighbouring District of Jessor. It is nine or ten miles in length, and runs from the Bághá *bil* through Digháliá in a southerly direction, falling into the Ghágar river near the Kotwálípárá police station. It was constructed partly for navigation, and partly as

a means of draining the swamps. It is not navigable during the dry season. (4) Besides the above, an attempt was made some years ago to connect the Daulat Khán Khál and Bholá Khál in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, but the project was not completed; the channel is only navigable in the rains, and then only by small boats. The Canals Act has been introduced into Bákarganj, and four toll-stations have been established, from which a considerable revenue is derived, but nothing has yet been done by Government towards excavating or deepening any of the channels. In the year 1869, 655 deaths from drowning were reported to the Police authorities, but it is very doubtful whether the figures represent the total loss of life from this cause. The most frequent cause of drowning is the falling of children into the deep moats which surround nearly every house.

River Traffic.—The towns and villages are all situated on the banks of a river or stream, but the only large town in the District is Barisál. The principal places inhabited by a large community living by river traffic are the following:—(1) Nalchití, on the river of the same name; the principal imports being salt, tobacco, oil, and sugar; and the chief exports rice and betel-nuts. (2) Mahárájganj, or Jhálakátí, on the Jhálakátí Khál; the imports and exports are the same as those at Nalchití, with the addition that it is a large market for the sale of timber, especially *Sundrí* wood. (3) Mádárípur, on the Kumár, principally exports jute; its imports are tobacco and oil. (4) Sáhibganj, on the river of the same name, principally exports rice, molasses, and *Sundrí* wood, and imports salt, oil, tobacco, and pulses. (5) Daulat Khán, in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, principally exports betel-nuts. The staples of Bákarganj District, which are the principal support of the river traffic, are rice, cocoa-nuts, and betel-nuts, among the exports; the chief import is salt. The sole use to which the rivers are put is for the purposes of navigation. Irrigation is scarcely known, but a small watercourse is occasionally dammed up for this purpose. The water of the rivers is nowhere utilised as a motive power for turning machinery, although the Collector reports that in the rains they have a strong enough current to admit of their being used in this way.

Fisheries.—There are no regular fishing towns or villages in the District, but most villages contain one or two fishermen's houses. The Collector, in 1871, stated that the number of professional fishermen in the District is not very great, but nearly every man fishes on his own account, either by net or rod, whenever he has leisure,

and this contributes a good deal to his maintenance. The Census Report of 1872 returns the number of fishing and boating castes in Bákarganj District at 20,628, or ·87 per cent. of the population. This, however, is exclusive of Muhammadan fishermen, and as the Musalmáns outnumber the Hindus by nearly two to one, there is a serious element of error in these figures. The principal Government fishery in the District is in the Kotwálípárá marshes; it was farmed out in 1869 for £248. Most of the fisheries in the District were taken possession of by Government some years ago, but afterwards relinquished. Fish are caught with nets, hooks, traps, and snares of numerous sorts. The local names for the principal sorts of nets (the mesh varying in size from less than a quarter of an inch upwards), are as follow:—*ber jál, jháki jal, nánglá jál, uther jál, bisál jál, poná jál, sande jál, mai jál, khorá jál.* The principal traps or snares used are the following:—*chaí, hochá, pola, koch, tetá,* and *jhop.*

MARSH RECLAMATION AND CULTIVATION.—Little has been done towards embanking rivers and marshes with a view to their reclamation and the extension of cultivation. The most important step that has been recently taken in this direction was the cutting of the canal before alluded to, by the Narál landholders—a work which will have the effect of reclaiming much of the Kotwálípárá marshes. The banks of the rivers and the marshes produce large quantities of reeds, which are used in making mats. Long-stemmed rice is extensively cultivated in the swamps and marshy lands. These marshes usually dry up in March or April, at which time the land is ploughed. When the rain sets in, the paddy stem shoots up with the rise of the water. Any sudden rise of water to such a height that the growth of the plant is unable to keep pace with it, destroys the crop. Long-stemmed rice can be cultivated in water to the depth of eighteen or twenty feet, but the seed must be sown when the marshes are dry, or nearly so, before the rains set in. Colonel Gastrell speaks of a stem of this variety of rice which he himself saw, and which was upwards of thirty feet long. No increase to the length of the stem of this variety of rice appears to have been effected by improved cultivation. The names of the various kinds of long-stemmed rice grown in the District are as follow:—Pakshiráj, Kálámánik, Lakshmíbilás, Ráendá, Botar, Káchkalam, Pittaráj, Lepá, Khaiá-mugrí, Nethpásá, Bhojánkarpur, Dalkachu, Chináisá, Báirákálá,

Kálámaná, Káláurá, Betak, Nepurkáni, Hansámat, Nalaj, Sítábhog, Chhatrabhog, Mátichául, Kumrágair, Dudhkalam, and Ghrita Sáil.

LINES OF DRAINAGE.—Although the District is widely overspread with swamps, the water finds numerous exits in the shape of watercourses and channels. With regard to this subject, the following paragraphs are extracted from a paper on the "Physical Characteristics of Bákarganj," which appeared in vol. xxxix. No. 78, of the *Calcutta Review*:—"Although in a District so essentially flat, a complete system of natural drainage would scarcely be looked for, we find that, in fact, the whole District, except where the great Meghná and Arial Khán rivers have obliterated the old features of the country by recent deposits over its northern and eastern portions, may be divided into distinct drainage districts, each of them containing corresponding features. In undulating tracts of country, the drainage ordinarily radiates from elevated centres towards the circumjacent coast-line. In alluvial formations, on the contrary, owing to the excess of deposit on the edges, the water flows inwards from an elevated surrounding and enclosing ridge to a central basin, from whence it is conducted to the exterior, along watercourses piercing through this surrounding ridge, And this order is followed, not merely in tidal Districts like Bákarganj, but in all alluvial formations, however elevated, as, for example, in Silhet.

"Each of the drainage circles or districts of Bákarganj possesses its central basin or reservoir of swamp, towards which the surface slopes in every direction from the exterior. On the exterior edge of the area, where it abuts on the large tidal rivers (which everywhere divide one drainage circle from another), the land is well raised and covered with villages. The intermediate space is covered with rice cultivation, and the centre is a lake or *bil*, varying in size and depth with the season of the year. From points not very far from the centre of this *bil* or marsh, and quite submerged in the rains, numerous little watercourses proceed in every direction towards the edge. These can only be recognised by the fact that a current flows along them, and by the narrow submerged rims of deposited earth which enclose them on either side, and partially separate them from the *bil* proper. Beginning almost in nothing, many combine to form others, which, though still within the *bil*, and with banks concealed by its waters, present more defined features. At last, by the coalescence of many, a watercourse is formed, with banks which, though but a few feet wide, and sloping rapidly towards the *bil* water, rise in

the cold weather above the swamp's surface. After further convergence of such channels, we find ourselves in a *khál* of moderate dimensions, with banks which are not submerged except in the height of the rains; but we are still many stages from the great rivers whose banks are permanently above the water, and which are some hundreds of yards in width. It is useless to particularise further. The numerous *khálś* which originate in the depths of the central reservoir terminate in some two or three considerable channels, which open into the main watercourse. Between this latter and the *bil* there is no water communication, except through these two or three channels and their ramifications. Even if a short cut were artificially made direct into the *bil*, it would, in a few rainy seasons, by sucking in at the ebb tide the water from all directions, create for itself a branched system of terminations under water, which, in the dry weather, would be exposed to view. The whole system depends on the principle that inundating waters, if in a position to lay down deposits, do so chiefly upon their actual banks, and thus tend to shut themselves off from the tract of submerged country beyond. As the banks rise, the rush of water over them at ebb and flood is intensified, and at length bursts open channels of communication. These throw up enclosing banks in their turn, which process gives birth to new connecting channels piercing these new banks, and the process is repeated till the communicating channels become so small as scarcely to be noticed.

"It is obvious that in this manner the drainage of flat surfaces is performed in the most effectual manner. In undulating or mountainous countries, the drainage derives sufficient force from gravity to maintain the channels open, but in alluvial flats the slow passage of the water would scarcely suffice. If in a tidal District the drainage channels merely flowed from the interior of each patch of land towards the circumference, they would soon fill with sediment brought in by the tide, which would ebb and flow in them with but slight velocity; but where these channels are the only means of communication between two considerable bodies of water constantly differing from each other in level, an adequate rate of speed is maintained. In the rainy season, the drainage reservoirs are connected much more directly with the exterior than during the remainder of the year. The water from various causes stands at an average at least six feet higher than in the dry season, and completely submerges all the interior articulations of the system of relieving channels. Only

the larger and more external have their banks above the water; the smaller feeders are supplied both from their extremities and over their own banks. The greater volume of water which then requires passage is thus amply provided for; whilst in the dry weather, when the drainage volume is weak, the water is unable on account of the fall in its level to leave the reservoir except through the extreme ends of very small channels. The banks of the different classes or grades of channels, each in turn, begin to fulfil their proper functions as the level decreases, and in this manner the water-way is always exactly proportioned to the volume to which it is required to give passage. In Districts of alluvium raised above tidal influence, the rise and fall of the rivers during the rainy season produces similar effects. The water in the swamps being only connected with these by narrow channels piercing the banks of the rivers, is always, unless the river remains very long at exactly the same level, either above or below that level, and the channels are incessantly occupied in restoring the balance.

"The swamps, or drainage reservoirs, are themselves an interesting feature in the physical geography of Bákarganj. They vary greatly in size, in accordance with the area of the tract they drain, and the amount of *filling up* which they have undergone. In the eastern portion of the District, the alluvium from the Meghná has completely obliterated the natural drainage organisation, which has become enveloped in one uniform mound sloping towards the west, and forming the right bank of this immense watercourse. In the west of the District, where the system of natural drainage prevails which we have endeavoured to describe, the swamps during the rainy season fill up the whole of each drainage tract, except its extreme margin, and the banks of the primary channels which penetrate that margin. In the dry weather they are reduced till they form only the nucleus or central portion from which the relieving channels take their rise. . . . From the *bil* on every side the country rises with considerable slope, the first firm ground being generally found in the watercourses. The drainage towards the *bil* is along successive terraces of rice fields, each a few inches lower than the next above it. The water is retained in the higher ground for cultivation by means of the little *hirás* or banks (here constructed of straw as well as earth), common throughout Bengal. It may be repeated that all the surface drainage of the tract surrounding each *bil* flows towards it, and never into the penetrating channels, whose banks are invariably

higher than the ground outside, and always slope away from the channel."

MINERALS, &c., &c.—There are no mineral products, with the exception of salt. This can be extracted very easily from the soil in most parts of the District, and is a frequent cause of breaches of the Salt Laws. In some of the islands in the Meghná estuary, the ground is quite white in the dry season from salt efflorescence. The only natural phenomenon in the District is a meteorological one, and is called the "Barisál Guns." It is a singular loud sound, resembling the distant discharge of artillery, which is heard in the south of the District, and especially during the rains. A paper was read on the subject by Bábu Gaur Dás Basákh before the Asiatic Society some years ago, and more recently the Society's attention was again called to the matter by a correspondent in the *Englishman;* but no one has yet come forward with a satisfactory explanation of the cause of this curious phenomenon. The statement that it is caused by the action of the waves on the sea-shore seems hardly tenable, as the sound is heard far inland, at such a distance from the coast as would preclude the possibility of this explanation; sometimes indeed as far north as Faridpur. No caverns or hot springs are situated in Bákarganj.

JUNGLE PRODUCTS.—The only forests in the District are situated in the southern tracts. They produce many varieties of timber and an abundant supply of firewood. The following are the principal varieties, and the use to which the timber is put. The list and Latin names are taken on the authority of Colonel Gastrell's Report:—(1) Gáb (Diospyros embryopteris); an extract from its fruit is applied as a covering for native boats as a preservative against decay and sea-worms. (2) Haritaki (Terminalia chebula), the gall-nut tree; the fruit and galls are much used by dyers; with a mixture of alum and galls they obtain a yellow, and with ferruginous mud, an excellent black. (3) Sundrí (Heritiera minor); a strong wood used for a variety of purposes; large quantities are exported to the Calcutta market as firewood. (4) Pasur; used for the manufacture of native furniture. (5) Keorá (Sonneratia apetala); used for platforms, making boxes, &c. (6) Kirpá (Lumnitzera racemosa); used for making small boats, for posts, rafters, &c., of houses, and in Calcutta as firewood. (7) Bairi (Zizyphus jujuba). (8) Karái; used for posts, &c. (9) Aunsir; used for making posts, &c. (10) Garán (Ceriops Roxburghianus); the timber is used for making posts, and

the bark for tanning. (11) Sonálí; the timber is used for making posts, and the bark for tanning purposes. (12) Jin; firewood. (13) Lohákhairá; firewood. (14) Phulsi; firewood. (15) Singiá; firewood. (16) Cháilá; firewood. (17) Kánkrá (Bruguiera rheedii); firewood; a hard and durable wood. (18) Náringá; used for making the handles of billhooks, axes, and spades or mattocks. (19) Bali; firewood; the inner bark also yields a strong fibre. (20) Urián; used for making small boats, platforms, &c. (21) Gámbhár; used for native drums, picture-frames, &c. In addition to the above are the following small trees and shrubs:—(22) Archaká (Sonneratia acida); a good firewood. (23) Bhorá (Rhizophora mucronata); a durable wood of a dark red colour. (24) Jádupáling (Salicornia Indica); a shrub from which the natives obtain barilla for soap. (25) Boáli; used for the same purpose as the above. (26) Hentál (Phœnix paludosa); the young trees are used for making walking-sticks, the older trees being made up into rafters for huts; the leaves are used for thatching. (27) Karanjá; the wood is used as fuel, and for making charcoal; the oil of the fruit is used for medicinal purposes. I have had to trust to Colonel Gastrell's Report for the Latin names. The woodcutters have a prescriptive right to the timber of these forests, and the late Commissioner of the Sundarbans reported that although they have no right to cut forest trees, they have always been permitted the privilege of doing so, and the timber is cut by woodcutters without a license. No forest conservancy exists in the Sundarbans, nor is any deemed necessary. Among the wild vegetable productions of marketable value in the District, the most important is the *hoglá* reed, which is extensively used for making mats. Thatching grass grows wild, but is never cultivated; a fence is simply put round it to keep out cattle. The fine Sítalpátí mats are manufactured from the bark of a reed called *partiá*; the chief seat of the manufacture is at Rangsrí village, within the Bákarganj police circle. In the southern forests bordering on the Sundarbans an annual revenue of about £11 is realised as license for the right of collecting honey and wax. The new *chars*, especially the Falcon *char* and Alexander *char*, are used as pasturage grounds. Many estates in Dakshín Sháhbázpur are let out on what is called a *gorkáti* settlement, and are used as grazing tracts for cattle and buffaloes.

FERÆ NATURÆ.—The principal wild animals of the District are tigers, leopards, buffaloes, and wild hogs. The rewards paid for the

destruction of wild animals are £1 per head for tigers, and 10s. per head for leopards. Formerly the rewards paid for this purpose were half of those paid now; and the Collector states that even the amount paid at present is insufficient to reimburse the huntsmen for the risk and expense, as the bringing in the body of the animal must often run away with a good portion of the reward. Crocodiles are numerous in the rivers towards the south and west of the District, and annually kill a great number of people and cattle, but no reward is given for their destruction. In the hot weather, when they become specially troublesome, it is not safe to bathe in, or take water from, the streams, except at places specially protected by palisades of bamboos or wooden stakes. Colonel Gastrell states that "even this precaution fails at times; instances have been frequently known of crocodiles entering within the palisades from the land side during the night, and in the morning the first notice of the hidden danger has been the struggles and shrieks of some unfortunate being seized and dragged under water by the huge reptile." The average number of deaths reported during the five years ending 1870 was 225 per annum from snake-bites and 14 from wild beasts. The Collector is of opinion, however, that these figures are considerably below the mark. No rewards have ever been given for snake-killing. The rivers and swamps of the District abound with fish. The following is a list of the principal fishes found in this District and throughout the Dacca Division:—Korál (coius), bhektí or bhetkí (vacti), hilsá or ilsá (ilasa), tapsí (polynemus), dháin, rohit or rui (rohita), kátal or kátlá (cyprinus), chital (notopterus chitala), kálíbáus (labeo calbasu), báns (one of the siluridæ), gáng, mágur, ghená, áir or árí, bágh áir, pángás (pangasius Buchanani), boál (Wallago attu), silang or siland, rithá, báin or eel, cháplá or chápilá, bhángá or bhángan (mugil cephalotus, also Rasbora elanga), bhol, nándail báchá, pauá or poá, gánglá, káuliá, tul dándi, kájali, piplá saul, khorsolá, ándari, máhsir or mahásaul, golsá, tengrá (macrones tengara), gáng tengrá, chándá (equula ruconius), tek chándá, káchki, subarna khariká, báilá or bele, bhedá, bátásí, phali (notopterus kapirat), tátkiná, pábdá (Callichrous pabda), kákilá, mirgá or mirgel, dánkoná, chelá, rám chelá or gáng chelá, gajál, mágur, jial or singi (saccobranchus fossilis), kai, khalisá (trichogaster), puti, and malandi or malundá. Game birds are very numerous. Numbers of waterfowl are caught annually, chiefly

for the sake of their plumage, which is sent to the Calcutta market. The birds most sought for this purpose are the marabouts, kingfishers, flamingoes, cranes, pelicans, and wild geese.

POPULATION.—A rough census was made at the time of the Survey by the civil officers of the demarcation establishment. The method adopted was to count the number of houses as nearly as possible, and by multiplying the result by five, an approximate return of the population was arrived at. This rough census returned the number of houses at 166,549, and the population at 832,745. An experimental census of two towns and two rural tracts was made in 1869, the two former being taken by the police and villagers, and the latter by the police and the landholders; each of these agencies working independently of the other. The result, however, was not very successful, and the Magistrate states that marvellous obtuseness was manifested by all agencies in attempting to comprehend the meaning of the different headings, and that the work was laborious and tedious. Although the returns were sent back for revision, the information was still supposed to be inaccurate. The results of the census were reported as follow :—Town of Barisál, area 1791 acres; number of houses, 2286; population, males 4020, females 2360, total 6380; average number of souls to a house, 2·78. Town of Mádárípur, number of houses, 699; population, males 1146, females 936, total 2082; average number of inmates per house 2·98. Block of villages (*mauzá*) called Hátáliá Pasurbaniá, in Salímábád Fiscal Division; area 2841 acres; number of houses, 972; population, males 2113, females 2051, total 4164; average number of souls per house, 4·28; average number of souls per acre, 1·46. Mauzá Bandarkhálí Halká, in Bozargomedpur Fiscal Division; area 3033 acres; number of houses 523; population, males 1170, females 1188, total 2358; average number of souls per house, 4·5; average number of souls per acre, ·77. The reason why the average number of inmates to a house is higher in the country than in the town, is that town life is disliked by the people, and those classes who carry on their business in towns keep the families in the country.

A more exact census of the whole District was taken by authority of Government in January 1872. Arrangements were carefully organised in order to secure a correct enumeration; and Mr Beveridge, the Collector, thus describes the various agencies he made use of, and some of the measures taken to overcome the peculiar difficulties experienced in his District :—

"The fullest possible advantage was taken of all available aids in effecting the Census. The schoolmasters, the excise establishments and boats, the police patrol-boats, and the police generally; the toll-collectors, the pound-keepers, and the village *chaukídárs*, &c., were all pressed into the service. There are no Government *patwáris* (village accountants) in this District, and very few estates under Government (*khás*) management; but in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur valuable aid was obtained from the *tahsíldár* (revenue collector) of Jainagar, which is the only considerable estate under direct Government management. The subdivisional system has been carried out to some extent in this District, and great use was made of it in the work of the Census. The four subdivisional officers all did their best, and two of them whose head-quarters are not centrically situated were out in the interior of their Subdivisions on the night of the Census. The Patuákhálí Subdivision, which is of very recent creation, was of material service in counting the inhabitants of the south of the District, and the District Superintendent of Police did good service in this quarter.

"In order to make the services of the village teachers fully available, the sanction of the inspector was obtained to the schools being closed for fifteen days, and with a similar object the Accountant-General's permission was obtained to the closing of the District and subdivisional treasuries for three days—viz., from the 13th to the 16th of January. The public also were warned beforehand that it would be difficult to attend to their cases during the census work, and the *mukhtárs* and others connected with our courts assisted us by keeping back complaints until the Magistrate should have time to attend to them. So also the police were instructed not to send up cases during the census work, if the doing so could be avoided. I ought not to omit to mention two preliminary orders to the police which I believe were of some service. One was the excusing of village *chaukídárs* from attendance at the *thánd* during the month of January unless they had to report crime, and the other was an announcement to the public through the *chaukídárs* that they should cut the jungle near their houses and see that the bamboo bridges over the *kháls* or canals were in good order, so that the enumerators might go about easily. . . . .

"So far I have spoken only of official assistance, and I have much pleasure in testifying that it was most willingly and efficiently rendered, and that I do not think any official or quasi-official

resource was overlooked or not used to the utmost. The weak point of the Census was of course the counting of the floating population, but we did our best to overcome the defect. Here it was that our boat establishments, such as they were, proved serviceable; and by calling out the excise boats, the police patrol and station boats, and the toll collectors' and toll overseers' boats, and by allowing boat-hire to Government officials (as far as our funds would allow), we sought to make this part of our test as far as possible a success. As regards aid from the public, I have to say that the landholders and their agents co-operated most heartily with the officials, and that some of them put themselves to considerable expense and trouble thereby."

In another communication Mr Beveridge writes as follows:—"I had always been afraid of the Census in Patuákhálí not being properly carried out, both because the Deputy was new to this District, and because of the difficult nature of the country. I was also much afraid that the census of the Maghs and woodcutters would not be properly taken. However, by the Police Superintendent undertaking the southern parts of the Subdivision, these fears were removed, and I believe that the census has been taken as accurately in Patuákhálí as in any other part of the District."

After mentioning the names of certain *zamíndárs* and others who had assisted in the work, the Collector proceeds:—"Although the gentlemen whom I have above named were from their position enabled to give us much help, I need hardly say that the real stress of the work fell upon the village enumerators. These men put themselves to great personal inconvenience, and even occasional personal danger from snakes and tigers, in taking the census, and they also in many cases incurred expenses for boat-hire, which, I am sorry to say, could not always be reimbursed to them. Many of them I understand spent Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 and even more, on boat-hire, and all they could get was Rs. 1-8-0 or Rs. 2-8-0, out of which they had also in some cases to supply themselves with lights and paper. They have, it is true, all received letters of thanks, but they deserved some substantial reward, and I regret that the small funds at my disposal did not allow of this being given." One of the enumerators gave vent to his feelings in Bengali verse, in which he somewhat graphically portrayed his sufferings on the night in question, expressing a hope that they would not be overlooked by a beneficent and grateful government.

"As the enumerators were, so to speak, the backbone of the affair, so was the selection of enumerators the most important and difficult work of the officials. It was a task which required great knowledge of the Mufassal as well as patience and tact, and it could not be accomplished without a good deal of physical fatigue. In many cases, especially in the south of the District, it was impossible to get local enumerators who could read and write, but every effort was made, and I believe that the list of enumerators, when finally revised, was about as good as could be made."

With regard to the accuracy of the results obtained, Mr Beveridge records his belief that the Census of Bákarganj was taken "with as near an approach to accuracy as was compatible with the limited amount of money placed at our disposal." Mr Testro, the Assistant Magistrate and Collector, who supervised the operations in a portion of the District, states:—"I myself visited four circles, and in addition to the house registers of those circles I personally tested the registers at four other places. These places were selected at random, and from what I saw I can say that I really believe the work to have been done with a very close approach to exactness. I found every house numbered and properly entered, and if only the people in each house were counted correctly (and I see no reason why they should not have been), the results obtained may be accepted as really representing the actual state of things. Considerations of averages may point to incorrectness in carrying out some of the orders, but inaccuracy as to the totals does not necessarily follow." The Subdivisional officers also reported to the same effect. The total cost of the Census throughout the District amounted to £278, 17s., spread over an area of 4935 square miles, for the enumeration of a population numbering 2,377,433 souls.

The following paragraph, extracted from page 106 of the Census Report, illustrates the comparative density of the population in various parts of the District:—"The land to the north-east, which adjoins the southern *thánás* of Faridpur, is marshy, with a comparatively scanty population; but the central strip of the District is particularly fertile even for Bengal, and very densely peopled. The *thánás* bordering on Deorá have about 800 persons to the square mile. Jhálakatí, Nalchití, and Bákarganj, which all contain large rice marts, have about 1000 persons to the square mile. In the south, however, the population is thinner, there being still large tracts of uncleared Sundarbans bordering on the estuary of the

Haringhátá. The three southern *thánás* of Mathbárí, Gulsákhálí, and Khálsákhálí, with an aggregate area of 1216 square miles, have only a population of a little over a quarter of a million, giving an average of only about 200 persons to the square mile. In the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur the number of persons to the square mile is 271."

The general results of the Census disclosed a total population of 2,377,433 souls, inhabiting 321,657 houses, the average density of population being 482 per square mile. The following table illustrates the area and population of each Police Circle and Subdivision in the District, as returned in the Census Report, from which it is quoted *verbatim*. A redistribution of the *thánd* areas, however, is in contemplation, as also the separation of the Mádárípur Subdivision from Bákarganj, and its annexation to the neighbouring District of Faridpur. These figures must therefore be accepted subject to alteration in consequence of the proposed changes.

The Census area includes 667 square miles of Sundarbans, chiefly lying within the Police Circle of Khálsákhálí. This tract is the thinnest populated in the whole District, and contains an average of only 122 inhabitants per square mile.

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX, RELIGION, AND AGE.—The total population of Bákarganj District amounts to 2,377,433, viz., 1,204,237 males, and 1,173,196 females; the proportion of males to the total population is 50·7 per cent., and the average density of the population 482 per square mile. Classified according to age, the Census gives the following results:—Hindus, under twelve years of age, males 144,122, females 119,377; above twelve years of age, males 269,747, females 294,147. Muhammadans, under twelve years, males 320,162, females 262,963; above twelve years, males 465,607, females 492,233. Buddhists, under twelve years, males 927, females 842; above twelve years, males 1213, females 1067. Christians, under twelve years, males 1001, females 870; above twelve years, males 1436, females 1545. Other denominations not classified separately, under twelve years, males 6, females 10; above twelve years, males 16, females 142. Total of all classes, under twelve years, males 466,218, females 384,062; above twelve years, males 738,019, females 789,134. The cause of the small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of adult females to adult males, is owing to the fact that in Bengal girls attain woman-

[*Sentence continued after the Table.*]

AREA, POPULATION, &c., OF EACH POLICE CIRCLE (THÁNÁ) IN BÁKARGANJ DISTRICT.

Subdivision.	Police Circle. (Thánd.)	Area in square miles.	Number of villages, mauzás, or townships.	Number of houses.	Total population.	Averages calculated by the Census Officers.				
						Persons per square mile.	Villages, mauzás, or townships per square mile.	Persons per village, mauzá, or township.	Houses per square mile.	Persons per house.
Headquarters Subdivision.	Barisál,	260	164	20,134	153,222	589	·63	934	77	7·6
	Jhálakáti,	129	316	16,464	137,430	1,065	2·45	435	128	8·3
	Nalchití,	90	143	11,492	89,464	994	1·59	626	128	7·8
	Bákarganj,	201	301	23,599	192,388	957	1·50	639	117	8·2
	Mendiganj,	*284*	*308*	*17,541*	*138,676*	*488*	*1·08*	450	62	7·9
	Subdivisional total,	964	1,232	89,230	711,180	738	1·28	577	·93	8·0
Mádárípur Subdivision.	Gaurnadí,	201	309	19,365	159,811	795	1·54	517	96	8·3
	Kotwálipárá,	286	205	8,028	84,195	294	·72	411	28	10·5
	Mádárípur,	583	330	22,119	171,331	719	1·41	519	92	7·8
	Mulfatganj,		490	31,632	247,706			506		7·7
	Subdivisional total,	1,070	1,334	81,144	663,043	620	1·25	497	76	8·2
Pirozpur Subdivision.	Kewárí,	213	388	37,841	173 438	814	1·82	447	178	4·6
	Pirozpur,	131	116	20,019	90,860	694	·89	783	153	4·5
	Mathbárí,	282	135	21,150	99,128	352	·48	734	75	4·7
	Subdivisional total,	626	639	79,010	363,426	581	1·02	569	126	4·6
Patuákhálí Subdivision.	Bauphal,	194	219	13,680	118,895	613	1·13	543	71	8·7
	Mirzáganj,	329	174	15,724	134,802	410	·53	775	48	8·6
	Gulsákhálí,	133	126	7,837	67,293	506	·95	534	59	8·6
	Khálsákhálí,	801	200	11,317	97,757	122	·25	489	14	8·6
	Subdivisional total,	1,457	719	48,558	418,747	287	·49	582	33	8·6
Dakshín Sháhbázpur Subdivision.	Daulatkhán,	461	170	12,238	114,262	248	·37	672	27	9·3
	Dhaniá Maniá,	357	175	11,477	106,775	299	·49	610	32	9·2
	Subdivisional total,	818	345	23,715	221,037	270	·42	642	29	9·3
	District total,	4,935	4,269	321,657	2,377,433	482	·87	557	65	7·4

[*Sentence continued from the page before the Table.*]

hood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood; and many of them are returned as women, while males of the same age continue to be classed as boys. The number and proportion of all ages of males and females may be taken as correct, the proportion of males in the total population being returned at 50·7 per cent. The number of insanes in the District is given at 703, or ·0296 per cent. of the total population; idiots at 86, or ·0036 per cent. of the total population; deaf and dumb at 579, or ·0244 per cent. of the total population; blind at 1375, or ·0578 per cent. of the total population; and lepers at 439, or ·0185 per cent. of the total population. Total of all infirmities 3182, or ·1338 per cent. of the total population. It is a curious circumstance that of the total number of persons afflicted with the foregoing infirmities less than one-fourth, or only 768, were females. The proportion of male infirms to the total male population is ·2004 per cent., and of female infirms to the total female population ·0654 per cent.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION.—The following paragraphs, showing the occupations of the people, are compiled from the tabular statements appended to the Census Report. The figures, however, must be taken as a rough approximation only, and the classification seems in many respects, perhaps unavoidably, imperfect. Upon this point Mr Beverley, in the concluding paragraphs of his Bengal Census Report, makes the following remarks:—

"These tables have been drawn up according to the elaborate classification prescribed by Colonel Strachey. The labour which their compilation involved has been enormous, and is very inadequately represented by the few pages of tabular matter appended to this report. Neither can I regard the result as altogether satisfactory. Even were it possible so thoroughly to train several large establishments located in different places in the principles of classification upon which the statement is intended to be based, that blunders on their part should be the exception instead of the rule, practical difficulties arise at every step from the indefiniteness of the information afforded by the returns themselves. To take, as an instance, the first class—Government servants—the figures under this head will probably be found very wide of the truth. A man who describes himself merely as an engineer, a *karáni*, or a *piyádá*, may or may not be a Government servant, and it is left to the discretion of the compiler to include or omit him from the class. The

same difficulty presents itself in regard to every other class. A weaver may weave silk, cotton, or jute; but unless information on the point is afforded, it is impossible to acquire a satisfactory idea of those various trades. Even were it practicable for the head of the office to go through the millions of returns himself, the result, considering the nature of the material, could not be other than unsatisfactory. As it is, his exertions are far from cheered by the conviction that will continually force itself upon him, that, after all, the statistics exhibited in this voluminous statement must be but a sorry equivalent for the immense labour and expense which its preparation involves.

"It is important, however, that I should state how the information in these tables has been obtained. In the form of return the occupation of male adults only was intended to be recorded. In cases, however, where there was no male adult householder, the occupation entered has been assumed to be that of the women shown against it. The statement, therefore, as regards women is altogether incomplete. The occupation of those women who have husbands or fathers is not shown, while that shown is often the occupation rather of the woman's absent or deceased husband than her own. It was not uncommon, for instance, to find women describing themselves as pursuing the avocation of blacksmiths or braziers. A strictly accurate return of the occupation of women can, of course, only be compiled when each individual woman is separately specified in the returns."

Occupations of Males.—Class I.—Persons employed under Government, Municipal, or other local authorities:—Government Police, 423; Rural Police, 5187; Covenanted Civil servants, 7; subordinate judicial officers, 5; subordinate executive officers, 3; Educational officers, 5; Public Works officials, 7; Post-office, 45; Excise, 31; clerks, 46; messengers (*piyádás*), 75; others, 5; total of Class I., 5839.

Class II.—Professional persons, divided into professors of religion, education, literature, law, medicine, fine arts, surveying, and engineering:—Hindu Priests (*purohits*), 9450; spiritual guides (*gurus*), 523; astrologers and astronomers (*áchárjyas*), 185; Muhammadan priests (*mullás*), 5; pilgrim guides, 4; temple attendants, 5; *khundkars*, 90; schoolmasters, 1130; teachers of Sanskrit (*pandits*), 76; Muhammadan clerks and interpreters (*munshis*), 46; Muhammadan law-doctors (*maulvís*), 94; students and scholars, 1759; pleaders,

71; law-agents (*mukhtárs*), 261; stamp vendors, 56; doctors, 140; Hindu medical practitioners, 3713; vaccinators, 10; cow-doctors (*gobaidyas*), 32; men-midwives, 314; compounders, 1; musicians, 2475; singers, 158; actors, 4; jugglers, 14; painters, 51; snake-charmers, 22; surveyors (*ámins*), 2; total of Class II., 20,691.

Class III.—Persons in service or performing personal offices:—Personal servants, 8958; cooks, 94; barbers, 9747; washermen (*dhobás*), 7694; sweepers (*mihtars*), 520; water carrier (*bhistí*), 1; doorkeepers (*darwáns*), 149; gardeners (*málís*), 44; marriage registrars (*ghataks*), 334; innkeeper, 1; unspecified, 635; total of Class III., 28,177.

Class IV.—Persons engaged in agriculture and with animals:—Superior landlords (*zamíndárs*), 1963; large leaseholders (*ijárádárs*), 18; holders of rent-free tenures (*lákhirájdárs*), 26; subordinate landlords (*tálukdárs*), 10,308; small leaseholders (*patnídárs*), 378; small permanent tenure-holders (*jotdárs*), 4; ordinary cultivators, 473,477; *hawáládárs*, 8403; land stewards (*gumáshtás*), 662; rent collectors (*tahsíldárs*), 1239; village accountants (*patwárís*), 268; holders of lands on military service tenures, or as servants of the *zamíndárs* (*páiks*), 1629; village headmen (*mandals*), 1; rent collector in charge of estates (*náib*), 1; managers of estates, 9; shepherds, 3; cowherds, 214; elephant drivers (*máhuts*), 7; grooms, 41; farriers and shoeing smiths (*nálbands*), 2; hunters (*shikárís*), 37; total of Class IV., 498,690.

Class V.—Persons engaged in commerce and trade, as in the conveyance of money and goods, in keeping and lending money, and in the sale of goods:—Cabmen, 5; carters, 2; palanquin bearers, 1437; boatmen, 27,662; farmers of ferries, 102; lascars, 11; warehousemen (*áratdárs*), 77; weighmen, 260; bankers and *mahájans*, 1219; pawnbrokers and money-changers (*poddárs*), 70; cashiers, 7; money-lenders, 8700; merchants, 542; *saudágars*, 14; petty dealers (*bepárís*), 2947; shopkeepers, 23,241; hawkers, 10; brokers (*dalál*s), 40; clerks, 58; outdoor clerks (*sarkárs*), 96; shopmen, 12; vernacular clerks (*muharrirs*), 12,783; managers, 6; total of Class V., 79,301.

Class VI.—Persons employed in mechanical arts, manufactures, and engineering operations, and in the sale of goods manufactured or prepared for consumption:—Glassmakers, 25; masons (*rájmistrís*), 476; bricklayers, 8; sawyers, 61; carpenters, 38; thatchers, 853; painters, 2; boat-builders, 132; blacksmiths, 1518; dealers in hard-

ware, 5; coppersmiths and workers in bell-metal (*kánsáris*), 216; tinmen, 5; goldsmiths, 3071; jeweller, 1; watchmakers, 4; potters, 3177; lime vendors, 87; cabinetmakers, 5965; comb-maker, 1; mat-makers, 677; basketmakers, 186; toymakers, 10; beadmakers, 10; garland-makers, 501; shell carvers, 244; cotton carders, 17; cotton spinners, 32; cotton weavers, 14,146; tailors, 1129; shoemakers, 398; cloth vendors, 357; ornament makers, 109; gunny-bag makers, 543; printers, 3; bookbinders (*daftris*), 12; paper-makers, 91; oil sellers, 1446; rice sellers, 1631; grain huskers, 245; bakers, 68; grain parchers, 7; costermongers, 42; confectioners, 26; sellers of molasses (*gur*), 135; butchers, 3; fishermen, 17,607; milkmen, 1123; spirit sellers, 6; toddy sellers, 33; liquor-shop keepers, 6; tobacco sellers, 15; opium seller, 1; *ganjá* sellers, 19; *pán* sellers, 2678; salt sellers, 8; dealers in firewood, 739; dealers in charcoal, 3; dealers in straw, 5; dealers in hides, 320; skinners and leather dealers, 192; total of Class VI., 60,468.

CLASS VII.—Miscellaneous persons not classed otherwise:—Pensioners, 157; beggars and paupers, 4789; labourers, 37,028; unemployed, 2433; male children, 466,664; total of Class VII., 511,071; grand total of males of all classes, 1,204,237.

OCCUPATIONS OF FEMALES.—The general caution which I have prefixed to the paragraphs on the employment of the people applies with special force to this Section.

CLASS I.—*Nil.*

CLASS II.—Professional females:—Priestesses, 199; female spiritual guides (*gurus*), 14; schoolmistresses, 3; *dáis*, 11; Muhammadan female medical practitioners (*hakims*), 4; female cow-doctors (*gobaidyas*), 3; dancers, 3; painters, 1; total of Class II., 238.

CLASS III.—Females in service or performing personal offices:—Personal servants, 425; nurses, 19; female cooks, 44; female barbers, 46; washerwomen, 213; female sweepers (*mihtráns*), 19; prostitutes, 1189; unspecified, 65; total of Class III., 2020.

CLASS IV.—Females engaged in agriculture or with animals:—Female landlords (*zamindárs*), 178; female leaseholders (*patnidárs*), 56; female subordinate landlords (*tálukdárs*), 900; female cultivators with rights of occupancy, 18; ordinary female cultivators, 8378; total of Class IV., 9530.

CLASS V.—Females engaged in commerce or trade:—Female

warehouse-keepers, 3; female money-lenders, 347; female shop-keepers, 1075; female petty dealers (*beparis*), 21; total of Class V., 1446.

Class VI.—Females employed in manufactures, or in the sale of goods manufactured or prepared for consumption:—Dealers in hardware, 2; dealers in pottery, 59; dealers in lime, 4; basket-makers, 30; mat-makers, 85; garland sellers, 41; spinners, 1277; weavers, 228; tailoresses, 15; net-makers, 131; female shoemakers, 6; rice dealers, 210; oil dealers, 54; grain parchers, 24; grain huskers, 2971; fishwomen, 336; milk sellers, 27; *pán* sellers, 103; dealers in firewood, 127; total of Class VI., 5730.

Class VII.—Miscellaneous females not classed otherwise:—Female pensioners, 35; female beggars and paupers, 1908; female labourers, 1113; unemployed females, 766,861; female children, 384,315; total of Class VII., 1,154,232. Grand total of females of all classes, 1,173,196.

Ethnical Division of the People.—The Census Report of 1872 thus classifies the population of Bákarganj District:—Non-Asiatics, 27; Eurasians, 127; aboriginal tribes, 3023; Semi-Hinduised aborigines, 342,583; Hindu castes, 476,145; persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 10,497; Muhammadans, 1,540,965; Maghs, 4066; grand total, 2,377,433.

Immigrant Races.—The situation of the District laid it open in olden times to predatory incursions by the Maghs or Arákánese, who made regular raids up the rivers in fleets of armed boats, and to such an extent were their ravages carried on, that in Rennel's map a considerable tract is marked as "depopulated by the Maghs." Many of them have now, however, permanently settled in the District, and are described as a quiet and peaceable community. In olden times the feeling about caste in the District was so sensitive, that the fact of a Magh passing through a house was considered to pollute it and its owner. The Maghs are, properly speaking, Buddhists by religion, but from long residence in a District where Buddhism is unknown, nearly all traces of their religion have become obliterated. Thus, in 1867 it is said that there was not a single Buddhist priest for the whole of the Magh colonies settled in the southern part of the District. Many Maghs have now embraced Hinduism, and are divided into the same castes as their co-religionists of Bengal proper. There are Magh Bráhmans, Baidyas, Káyasths, &c., but they are despised by the general Hindu community,

and indeed they themselves consider that they are scarcely admissible into it. Although looked down upon from a religious point of view, the Maghs from their straightforwardness and peaceable disposition have won for themselves the respect of the Bengalis, who address them by the title of Chaudhrís, or headmen. The following account of their settlement in Bákarganj District is extracted from the Report of the Collector, quoted at page 140 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division":—"The Maghs first settled in the Sundarbans some seventy years ago, when they fled from their homes during the war between the Pegu and Arákán Rájás, which ended in the conquest of Arákán by Pegu. At Kháprábhángá, near Choplí I met several old Magh women who must have been at least seventy years old, and who said they came over to settle there when they were quite girls. The Maghs have a great love for their old homes, to which they make occasional visits. They generally wait for the fair weather in the cold season, and cross to Chittagong and Cox's Bázár in ordinary boats, and thence go home. They adhere to their own mode of living, and only intermarry among themselves. Their dwellings are built on the same model as the Burmese houses. It is interesting to see the Magh settlements dotted all about the Sundarbans, and one might almost fancy he was travelling through Burmese villages while among the Bákarganj Maghs. It has been said that the Maghs or Arákánese are a very indolent race. They may be so in their own country, but they are certainly not so in the Sundarbans. None but Maghs could have cleared the sea-board jungles so well. Whatever they may be in their own country, they are a most industrious, energetic race in the Sundarbans. But they must have their own way to set about it. Thus, I have not unfrequently heard that the Maghs are bad clearers for the Sundarbans, because they only stay a year or two at a place where the jungle grows, and sow and reap the crops, and then go away. This is perfectly true in one sense. They do not like clearing jungle lands for others. Wherever they have had a grant of land in their own hands, as at Kháprábhángá, which is near Choplí, and at other neighbouring places, they settle down with their families, and clear the land in the most wonderful manner. This partly arises from their fear of the Bengali *gumáshtá* or *náibs* (revenue agents), of whom they have a most wholesome horror, and from their fear of foreigners generally. Among the Maghs settled in this District there are some leading families who have amassed great wealth. Besides those settled down in the south of Bákarganj, a large

number of them come every year to Nalchití to buy betel-nut, rice, &c." The Census Report of 1872 returned the number of Maghs in Bákarganj District at 4066. The Bunás are immigrants, but number very few in Bákarganj, and cannot say from what part of the country they originally came. They are chiefly employed as woodcutters, and numbered 173 in the District according to the Census of 1872.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION does not take place to any extent in Bákarganj at the present day. At harvest-time, about December, a number of reapers come from Dacca and Faríd pur, but they all return to their homes after the crops are cut. The large traders and merchants generally have places of business in other Districts, and for the most part are not natives of Bákarganj. The professional classes also are chiefly recruited from the neighbouring Districts of Dacca and Faríd pur.

CASTES.—There are three classes of Bráhmans in the District, the Rárhi, Bárendra, and Vaidik; the Rárhi and Bárendra being comparatively few in number, while the Vaidiks are more numerous. Some classes of Bráhmans have become degraded by their serving as priests to the despised classes, that is, to those from whose hands a pure Bráhman will not take water. These lapsed Bráhmans are not admitted to intercourse with the pure Bráhmans, and are called by the name of the caste they have attached themselves to, such as Sháhá Bráhman, Kaibartta Bráhman, Subarna Banik Bráhman, &c. The ordinary Bráhmans of Bákarganj are either employed in religious pursuits, in Government service, or as lawyers; many are also landed proprietors. They are fairly numerous in the District, and are highly esteemed. Although the majority of the Bráhmans are poor, many are comfortably off, and a few are rich men. Their number, as returned by the Census of 1872, was 65,254. (2) The Kshattriyas formed the second or warrior caste in the ancient Sanskrit fourfold social classification, but it is believed that there are now no pure Kshattriyas in Bengal. The Census Report classifies them as a trading caste, and returns their number at 112. (3) Rájputs, a tribe of the North-Western Provinces, who claim to belong to the Kshattriya caste, and are generally employed in military service; number in Bákarganj District, 952. (4) Baidya; their caste occupation is that of hereditary physicians, but within recent years many of them have abandoned their ancient occupation, and are now landed proprietors or Government clerks. They rank high in social esteem, and although the majority are said to be in rather poor circumstances,

many of them are well off, and a few are really wealthy men. The Census Report of 1872 returns their number at 12,960. (5) Káyasth; this caste is divided into two sects in Bákarganj, called respectively Banga and Dakshín Rárhi. The latter is insignificant in point of numbers, but the former is very numerous, and indeed outnumbers all the other respectable castes in the District. The Census Report returns the Káyasths of Bákarganj at 125,164. Among them are many men of high rank, and in wealthy circumstances. All Banga Káyasths throughout Bengal would think it an honour to marry into any of the following Bákarganj families:—The Thákurtá (family name Guhá) at Bánarípárá; the Dastidár (Ghosh) family at Gabhá; the Ror (Ghosh) family at Narottampur; and the Ror (Basu) family at Nathulibágh. The Káyasths are employed in a variety of respectable occupations, as Government servants, writers, clerks, &c., and are held in high social esteem. In worldly circumstances they are generally well off. (6) Márwári and Agarwálá, up-country trading castes, who claim to be Kshattriyas; number in Bákarganj District, 76. (7) Barna Bipra, a class of Bráhmans who are considered to have become degraded in consequence of their officiating as priests to the low castes. They are said to be numerous in Bákarganj, but are not returned as a separate caste in the Census Return, the numbers being probably included in the general total of Bráhmans given above. (8) Daibajna or Áchárjya, fortune-tellers and astrologers. They are reckoned as degraded Bráhmans, from their practice of indiscriminately taking gifts from the low castes. The caste is not shown separately in the Census Report, their numbers being probably included with the other Bráhmans. (9) Agradání, a lapsed class of Bráhmans, who have become degraded from their practice of receiving gifts at funeral obsequies (*sráddhas*); not given separately in the Census Return.

The Súdra castes come next. The following list is arranged as far as possible in the order in which each caste is ranked in local public esteem; the numbers being derived from the Census Report of 1872:—(10) Nápit, barbers; number in 1872, 40,044. (11) Kámár, blacksmiths; number, 11,408. (12) Kumár or Kumbhár, potters; number, 13,748. (13) Tilí or Telí, originally oil pressers and sellers by caste occupation, but within recent years many of them have abandoned their hereditary employments, and set up as traders, grain-dealers, &c.; some of them are now wealthy men. By their numbers and general prosperity, they have now succeeded in pushing them-

selves forward into a higher social rank than is accorded to the oil-selling caste, and claim to be one of the *nabasáks*, or the nine pure Súdra castes from whose hands a Bráhmán can receive water without defilement. Number in Bákarganj District in 1872, 12,020. (14) Támlí or Ṭámbulí, originally betel sellers by caste occupation, but many of them have forsaken their ancient employment, and betaken themselves to trade and agriculture. The caste is not a strong one in Bákarganj District, and the Census Report returns them at only 68. (15) Sadgop, the highest of the cultivating castes; number in 1872, 186. (16) Málí, gardeners and flower sellers; 2204 in number. (17) Gandhbaṇik, grocers and spice sellers by caste; many are also wealthy traders; 3290 in number. (18) Bárui, *pán* gardeners and sellers of betel leaf; 14,453 in number. (19) Sánkhárí, makers of shell bracelets; 1157 in number. (20) Kánsárí, braziers and coppersmiths; 547 in number. (21) Súdra, domestic servants, boatmen, and agriculturists; 8989 in number. (22) Goálá, milkmen and cowkeepers; 6738 in number. (23) Sháhá, traders and merchants. These originally belonged to the Surí, or despised wine-selling caste, but they have abandoned their hereditary occupation, and by their wealth and importance have pushed themselves forward into a higher social rank. Not given as a separate caste in the Census Return. (24) Kaibartta or Háluá Dás, cultivators and fishermen; 29,341 in number. (25) Madak or Mayrá, sweatmeat makers; 1450 in number. (26) Gánrár, sellers of parched rice and other preparations; 2 in number. (27) Kurmí, a class of up-country cultivators; number in Bákarganj District, 20. (28) Vaishnav, followers of Chaitanya. This is rather a sect of Hindus than a caste, and indeed the principle inculcated by Chaitanya, the founder of the sect, was the equality of man. At the present day, however, they are regarded as a caste, and caste prejudices are said to be gradually creeping in among them. A full account of this sect will be found in my Statistical Accounts of Dacca and the 24 Parganás. The Census Report returned the number of Vaishnavs in Bákarganj District in 1872 at 5799. (29) Chásá Dhopá, cultivators; 7 in number. (30) Tántí, weavers; 1875 in number. (31) Sekerá or Swarnakár, goldsmiths and jewellers; 455. (32) Subarnabaṇik, merchants, bankers, and dealers in gold and precious stones; 2144 in number. (33) Sutradhar or Chhutár, carpenters; 2081 in number. (34) Kurí, confectioners; not given in the Census Report. (35) Koerí, cultivators and agricultural labourers; 436 in number. (36) Dhanuk

domestic servants; 213 in number. (37) Dhobá, washermen; 27,395 in number. (38) Kalu, oil pressers and sellers; 164 in number. (39) Jogí and Patuá, weavers; 28,198 in number. (40) Chandál, fishermen, cultivators, day-labourers, &c.; 326,775 in number. (41) Kapálí, cotton weavers; 8378 in number. (42) Chunárí, lime-burners; 303 in number. (43) Káthurá, lime-burners; not given as a separate caste in the Census Report. (44) Beldár, labourers and cultivators; 98 in number. (45) Rawáni Káhár, an up-country caste, principally employed as domestic servants, water-carriers, and palanquin bearers; 557 in number. (46) Surí, spirit manufacturers and sellers; 26,160 in number. (47) Kacháru, manufacturers of lac bracelets. They are not mentioned as a separate caste in the Census Report, but the Collector states that they are very few in number in the District. (48) Jáliá or Jhál, fishermen; 12,602 in number. (49) Málá, fishermen and boatmen; 1705 in number. (50) Mánjhí, not so much a caste as a designation of their occupation as boat-steerers; 46 in number. (51) Pod, fishermen; 314 in number. (52) Tior, fishermen and boatmen; 696 in number. (53) Patiál, labourers; 1015 in number. (54) Behárá, palanquin bearers; 577 in number. (55) Bágdí, cultivators, fishermen, labourers, &c.; 76 in number. (56) Bharanpál, cultivators; not given as a separate caste in the Census Return. (57) Loáit, turtle catchers; not mentioned in the Census Report. (58) Báití, mat-makers and also musicians; 331 in number. (59) Nar, musicians; not classified in the Census Report. (60) Patitá, makers of fine mats; not mentioned in the Census Return. (61) Pátuní, fishermen and ferrymen; 4518 in number. (62) Báheliá, labourers and cultivators; 1 in number. (63) Chámár, and Muchí, or Rishi, shoemakers and leather dealers; 3991 in number. (64) Dom, fishermen and basketmakers; 1088 in number. (65) Buná, aboriginal labourers from Western Bengal; 173 in number. (66) Dosadh, labourers, cultivators, &c.; 13 in number. (67) Karangá, labourers, cultivators, &c.; 248 in number. (68) Khen, labourers, cultivators, &c.; 10 in number. (69) Koch, cultivators and fishermen; 498 in number. (70) Pálí, cultivators, labourers, &c.; 64 in number. (71) Mál, snake charmers; 2945 in number. (72) Pásí, toddy-makers from date juice; 66 in number. (73) Bhuimálí, sweepers and street scavengers; 38 in number. (74) Pán, labourers; 41 in number. (75) Hárí, swineherds and sweepers; 309 in number. (76) Káorá, swine-keepers; 58 in number. (77) Mihtar, sweepers; 6039 in number. (78) Bediyá, a class of wander-

ing gypsy-like people, half Hindus and half Muhammadans in religion, earning a living by juggling, hunting, begging, &c., and when these means fail, by petty thefts; 71 in number.

No distinct hereditary class of criminals is found in the district, but a wandering gypsy tribe, called Bebájiás, are rather numerous. They profess Muhammadanism, but form a distinct class from the rest of their co-religionists, with whom they do not socially intermingle. They principally live in boats, travelling from place to place, but have their fixed headquarters where their chief men reside, and to whom all disputes among themselves are referred. They gain their subsistence chiefly by wood-cutting in the Sundarban tracts of the District, also by fishing, practising as physicians, fortune-telling, and as river-pedlars, traders in small wares, such as fish-hooks, lines, looking-glasses, cloth, &c. The Bebájiás, unlike similar wandering tribes in other parts of the country, are a peaceful and industrious class, orderly in their habits, and requiring no special supervision or watching. They very seldom come before the courts, and as they hold no lands of their own, are never embroiled in affrays and riots.

Religious Division of the People.—Bákarganj District contains Muhammadans, Hindus, Bráhma Samáj followers, Buddhists, and Christians, the Musalmáns forming the largest section of the population. As already stated, the total population of Bákarganj amounts to 2,377,433; namely, 1,204,237 males, and 1,173,196 females. Of these, 1,540,965, or 785,769 males and 755,196 females, are Muhammadans; the proportion of Musalmáns to the total population being 64·8 per cent., and of Muhammadan males to the total Muhammadan population 51 per cent. The Hindus number 827,393, namely, 413,869 males, and 413,524 females; the proportion of Hindus to the total population being 34·8 per cent., and of males to total Hindu population 50 per cent. The Buddhists number 4049, namely, 2140 males, and 1909 females; proportion of Buddhists to total population, ·2 per cent; proportion of Buddhist males to Buddhist population 52·9 per cent. The Christian population amounts to 4852 souls, namely, 2437 males and 2415 females; proportion of Christians to total population, ·2 per cent; proportion of Christian males to Christian population, 50·2 per cent. The remainder of the population are not separately classified according to religion, but are entered in the Census Report under the heading of "others." They consist of 174 souls; namely, 22 males and 152 females, the proportion of males to total "others" being 12·6 per cent.

THE MUHAMMADANS, as above stated, form the majority of the population, and especially predominate in the southern parts of the District, where nearly all the inhabitants are Musalmáns. The number of Muhammadans amounts to 785,769 males and 755,196 females, making a total of 1,540,965, or 64·8 per cent. of the total population. In the towns and larger villages, however, it is said that the Hindus outnumber the Muhammadans, and for the town of Barisál, the Census Report returns a population of 4694 Hindus as against 2821 Muhammadans. The caste system does not prevail among the Musalmáns, although nine classes exist among them, strongly demarcated from the rest of the population. These are (1) Nikáris, fishermen and boatmen; (2) Náiyá, fish sellers; (3) Jolá, cloth manufacturers; (4) Láhurí, ornament makers; (5) Ostá, circumcisers; (6) Nagarchi, musicians; (7) Mír Shikárí, fowlers; (8) Garálí, harpooners of crocodiles; and (9) Matiál, makers of oil-pots. The Census Report, however, gives no return of the numbers belonging to each of these classes. The Bákarganj Musalmáns are reported by the Collector as much addicted to litigation. The Faráizís, or Puritan sect of Muhammadans, are very numerous, especially in the southern parts of the District. A late Collector of Bákarganj, in his Report on the District, in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," states that a Faráizí may be distinguished from any other Musalmán by the following external characteristic. He dresses differently from other Muhammadans, and wraps his *dhutí* or waistcloth round his body without crossing it between his legs, from his aversion to anything like a Christian's trousers. A brief account of the founding and rise of the Faráizís, under Hájí Sharitullá, and their growth under his son Dudú Miyán, will be found in my "Statistical Account of Faridpur District," the original home of the sect. Upon the death of Dudú Miyán in 1862, his three sons, together with his nephew, set themselves to continue the propagation of the new creed, and the Collector in 1871 reported that they were still maintaining themselves by that profession. A considerable landed property, which was acquired by Dudú Miyán and his father from their disciples in the early days of the sect, has now been sold for debts. Another sect of Muhammadans follow the teachings of Maulví Karámat Alí, a learned Musalmán law-doctor, much respected by his co-religionists. He came to Calcutta as a disciple of Sayyid Ahmad, the Wahábí preacher,

who acquired great notoriety by stirring up the tribes beyond the North-Western frontier to a religious crusade against us. After Sayyid Ahmad's departure for Mecca about 1822, Maulví Karámat Alí arrived at Bákarganj with the object of teaching the Muhammadan faith. He established a school, and soon made converts to the tenets which he promulgated. The new sect rapidly increased in Bákarganj and the neighbouring districts of Farídpur, Dacca, Noákhálí, Chittagong, and Tipperah. After the death of Dudú Miyán, many of the latter's followers joined the party of Karámat Alí, and at the present day the sect outnumbers that of Dudú Miyán, whose sons and successors are too weak to keep their followers and disciples under their spiritual control. The form of Wahábiism preached by Maulvi Karámat Alí was a protest against the abuses which had been allowed to creep into the Muhammadan worship, and did not involve disloyalty to the ruling power or hostility to other forms of faith. There is a family of Muhammadans in Bákarganj, the Miyáns of Srírámpur, who were originally Bráhmans. Their old kinsmen, the Majumdárs of Maradiá, have no caste, as they became degraded by their adoption of the practice of marrying their first cousins, a custom strictly prohibited by Hindu law. The family have now no Bráhman priests, and have thrown away their sacred thread, as they can obtain no recognised status in Hindu society.

The Hindu population of Bákarganj numbers 827,393; namely, 413,869 males, and 413,524 females; the proportion of Hindus to the total population of the District being 34·8 per cent. The only peculiarity requiring special mention among the religious ceremonies of the Hindus of Bákarganj is the special reverence they pay to Manasá, the Goddess of Snakes, who is always represented among the family idols. The extensive worship of this deity in the District has been ascribed to terror on account of the number of deaths from snake-bite, but the Collector thinks it more probably a relic of the old serpent-worship. The cult is not confined to Bákarganj District, and is reported to be exceedingly prevalent in Kuch Behar, although snakes are not very numerous or particularly deadly in that part of the country. One of the religious ceremonies which, although performed generally throughout Bengal, is celebrated with more pomp and expense in Bákarganj than elsewhere, is the Nabánna, or the first eating of the new rice after it has been offered to the gods. Even the Muhammadans, the

higher classes excepted, join in it, although they do not perform all the religious rites. The ceremony takes place on a particular day in the month of Agraháyan (November–December), just after the harvest has been gathered in; and for the proper performance of the rite, all the members of the family assemble together for the purpose of partaking together of the new rice. One of the ceremonies observed on the occasion is an offering consisting of a plantain and some rice mixed with molasses and ground cocoa-nut, made to the crows, before the party sits down to the feast. If a crow does not consume the offering, the people look upon it as an ill-omen, and live in great anxiety lest any danger should befall them during the year. Caste-disputes occur among the Hindu population from very slight causes, and make themselves felt throughout the entire District. Thus, the Collector in 1871 reported that some Hindu schoolboys on their way from Calcutta ate some pulse cooked by Muhammadan boatmen. One of the boys who had not partaken of the food reported the fact. This gave rise to social disputes and to the institution of several criminal charges. The whole central division of the District was arrayed into two factions, one in favour of excommunicating the unfortunate lads from their caste, and the more liberal-minded in favour of less stringent measures. The disputes thus raised took a long time to subside.

THE BRÁHMA SAMÁJ, or Theistic Religious Society of the Hindus, was first established in Bákarganj in 1861, the meetings being held in the house of one or other of the members. Serious difficulties were at first experienced by the Samáj, the members of which were principally young men, from the opposition of their parents and guardians, who in nearly every instance belonged to the more orthodox section of Hindus. In 1864, however, they succeeded in erecting a place of worship of their own, which after a time was attended by the ladies belonging to the families of the members of the Samáj. A school was also established for the education of the Bráhma ladies in both secular and religious instruction. As in other parts of Bengal, the Bráhmas of Bákarganj are divided into two sects—one generally called the progressive Bráhmas, and the other the Conservative or old Bráhmas. The former are said to predominate in Bákarganj, the latter being but an insignificant party, and with very little influence in the management of the affairs of the Samáj. The two sects of Bráhmas are distinguished here, as elsewhere, by the progressive section renouncing all distinctions of caste,

and the social rules observed by the Hindu community; while the conservative party observe all the outward customs and ceremonies of the Hindus, and are Bráhmas only in faith and religious belief. These latter do not lose caste, and are freely admitted into orthodox Hindu society. The progressive Bráhmas, however, have formed a separate and distinct community among themselves, and are reported by the Magistrate to be as much detested by the Hindus as Musalmáns or Christians. In 1871 they numbered twenty-two families in the District, most of them belonging to the higher classes of native society, and many of them well educated, and holding good positions. The operations of the Samáj are at present principally confined to the town of Barisál, and with the exception of the village of Lákhutiá, the headmen of which have joined the reformed faith, very few members of the sect are found among the rural population. It is impossible to give accurate statistics of the number of Bráhmas in Bákarganj District. They are not mentioned separately in the Census Report for 1872, but are classed with ordinary Hindus.

BUDDHISM is not making any way in the District, and indeed, with regard to the Buddhist or Magh Settlements in the Sundarban tracts, it is said that long residence among people of strange faiths has almost obliterated all traces of this ancient religion. Some of the Maghs have embraced Hinduism, and, as stated on a previous page, divide themselves into castes such as Bráhmans, Baidyas, Káyasths, &c. The Census Report returns the number of Buddhists in Bákarganj District as follows:—Males, 2140; females, 1909; total, 4049; proportion of Buddhists to total population, ·2 per cent.

CHRISTIANITY.—There is a large native Christian community in Bákarganj. At the close of 1869, the Baptist Missionary Society had under its care 3336 people, including women and children, of whom 824 had been baptized, and a large number were receiving special instruction preparatory to their admission to Church fellowship. At the close of 1869, the Mission supported eleven village schools, at which about 300 children were in daily attendance, nearly one-fourth of the pupils being girls. Besides these village schools, there is also a special class at the town of Barisál for some of the more promising boys. This Christian community owes its origin to the efforts of the Serampur Baptist Missionaries, Messrs Carey, Marshman, and Ward. The Mission is at present under the care of the Rev. J. Sale. Among the converts are several men of high

caste, and a few of Musalmán extraction, but the great majority belong to the low caste Chandáls or Kapálís, and subsist by cultivation. Some, however, are engaged in the fishing trade, and considerable quantities of fish are taken by them to Calcutta as well as to large markets nearer home. They include a number of sawyers, village carpenters, and boat-builders. It cannot be said of the community that they are well off, but many have managed to raise themselves above the lowest rank, and a very small proportion has attained to something like a well-to-do position. It is said that many of the lower class of converts, although devoid of all distinction of caste, still observe some of the class distinctions of the Hindu community. For instance, a Christian of the Kotwálípárá *bil*, belonging to the Chandál caste, although perhaps converted many years ago, still objects to eat fowls, or food cooked by converts from Muhammadanism. Another Protestant Mission is attached to the Church of England, and numbers about 600 persons, under the care of Mr Barerio. The headquarters of this community is at Dhándaha. A Roman Catholic Mission in connection with the Goa Church is established at Sibpur, and another was established directly by the Church of Rome at Barisál. At one time considerable differences sprang up and long rankled between the Goa and the Calcutta priests, but these disagreements have now been settled by a concordat between the Pope and the King of Portugal. The number of persons attached to the Sibpur Catholic Mission is about a thousand, besides three other small village settlements numbering a hundred and fifty souls. The Christians attached to the Sibpur Church mostly support themselves by cultivation, but many are employed as domestic servants at Calcutta or elsewhere, and others support themselves as fowlers or *shikárís*. As a general rule, the native converts are honest and trustworthy, and much attached to their homes. The total Christian population of Bákarganj is returned by the Census of 1872 at 4852 souls. Deducting 154 as representing the European and Eurasian inhabitants, there remains a balance of 4698 native Christians. The town of Barisál contains a Protestant Church, which is attended by most of the European residents of the Station, the average attendance being 14. A Minister of the Additional Clergy Society officiates. There is also a Baptist Chapel at Barisál, where the service is in English. It is attended by several of the European residents.

Towns.—Bákarganj is a purely agricultural District; the people

evince no tendency to gather into towns or towards city life; and the Census Report of 1872 only returns one town as containing a population exceeding 5000 souls. This is the Civil Station of Barisál, which in 1872 contained 7684 inhabitants, classified as follows:—Hindus, males 3753, females 941, total 4694. Muhammadans, males 1967, females 854, total 2821. Christians, males 75, females 85, total 160. Others, males 4, females 5, total 9. Total of all denominations, males 5799, females 1885, grand total 7684. Education seems to have made rapid progress in the town. Statistics collected by the Census show that out of a total male Hindu population of 3753, 2045 could either read and write, or were under instruction; out of 1967 male Muhammadans, 405 have received or are receiving elementary instruction; and out of 75 male Christians, 32 are able to read and write. Thus out of a total male population of 5799 souls, 2482 or 43 per cent. have either received or are receiving elementary instruction. Female education, however, is in a very backward state, only 28 Hindu females out of 941, and 7 Musalmán females out of 854, having received any instruction. With the Christians, the Mission Schools have undertaken the task of education, and out of 85 Christian females of all classes, 77 are able to read and write, or are under instruction. Barisál has been created a Municipality under the provisions of Act XX. of 1850. In the year 1869–70, the municipal revenue amounted to £376, 9s. 4d., and the expenditure to £358, 18s. 6d. For the year 1871–72, the gross municipal income amounted to £1019, 16s., and the gross municipal expenditure to £1006, 2s., the rate of municipal taxation being 2s. 7¾d. per head of the population. Barisál town is situated on the west bank of the river of the same name, in 22° 41′ 40″ north latitude, and 90° 24′ 30″ east longitude.

The three other municipal towns, or rather large villages, for none of them contain a population of five thousand souls, are as follow:—(1) Nalchití, situated on the south bank of the river of the same name, in 22° 37′ 55″ north latitude, and 90° 19′ 10″ east longitude. It is a large trading village, the principal exports being rice and paddy, and the chief imports, salt, tobacco, oil, and sugar. The municipal income in 1869–70 amounted to £165, 13s. 2d., and the expenditure to £60, 19s. 9d. (2) Jhálakátí or Maháráj ganj, situated at the junction of the Jhálakátí and Nalchití rivers, in 22° 37′ 45″ north latitude, and 90° 14′ 25″ east longitude. Jhálakátí is one of the largest timber markets in Eastern Bengal, especially for the sale of *sundrí*

wood, which is largely exported to Calcutta and elsewhere as fuel. A considerable export trade is also carried on in rice and paddy, the principal import being salt. The municipal receipts in 1869–70 amounted to £169, 15s., and the expenditure to £60, 9s. 8d. (3) Daulat Khán, the principal village in the island of Dakshín Shábázpur, and the headquarters of that Subdivision, situated in 22° 37′ 30″ north latitude, and 90° 50′ 25″ east longitude. Principal article of export, betel-nuts. Municipal income in 1869–70, £240, 17s. 3d.; expenditure, £126, 1s. 10d.

Besides the foregoing, there are several other trading villages, of which the following are the most important:—Mádárípur, the headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, situated in the north of the District on the Kumár river, in 23° 11′ 10″ north latitude, and 90° 14′ 25″ east longitude; principal exports, jute; imports, tobacco and oil. Sáhibganj, situated on the river of the same name; principal exports, rice, paddy, molasses, and *sundrí* wood; imports, salt, oil, tobacco, cloth, and pulses. Angariá, situated on the river of the same name; principal export, rice; no imports of consequence. Sayyidpur, situated on the river of the same name; principal export, rice; import, salt. Jabar Amlá, situated on the river Kachuá; principal exports, rice and molasses; no imports of consequence. The following villages also carry on an export trade in rice:—Kálíganj, situated on the river of the same name; Jhilná, on the river of the same name; Farídpur, on the river of the same name; Bauphal, on the river Daspárá; Nayámáti, on the river Bíshkhálí; Bhandáriá, on the river of the same name; Kaukhálí, on the Kaukhálí Don; Káliá, on the river of the same name; Rámpur, on the river of the same name; Shubidkhálí, on the river Mirzáganj; Gulsákhálí, on the river of the same name; Auliápur, on the river of the same name; Dhalkisor, on the river of the same name; Patuákhálí, on the river of the same name; and Kochábaniá, Khairábad, Kánudáskátí, and Mathbáriá, all called after the rivers on which they are respectively situated.

Annual trading fairs are held at Kálísurí, Kulsokátí, Lákhutiá, Bánarípárá, Nalchirá, Pirozpur, Bhandáriá, and Jhálakátí; average attendance, from three to twelve thousand persons. A further account of the religious-trading gatherings will be given on a subsequent page.

THE MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE is good. With scarcely a single exception, every man, including even the domestic servants

whose homes are in the District, is a small landholder, and cultivates sufficient rice and other necessaries for the support of his family. Owing to this cause, hired labour is very scarce, and during the harvest season, when the few available labourers are eagerly bid for by the landholders, the price of labour rises to a shilling per diem. The diet of the natives consists principally of rice, fish, and vegetables; but the Muhammadans, whenever rich enough to do so, indulge in animal food, particularly fowls and goats. It is estimated that the average cost of living to a labouring man amounts to about 6s. per month. Except in the larger villages, the dwellings of the people are very isolated, and this is especially the case in the southern part of the District. The inhabitants seldom congregate together in villages, but each man builds his homestead on his own land, generally on the highest spot in his holding, without any reference to his neighbours. The consequence is that the homesteads are far apart from each other, with dense plantations of cocoa-nut and betel-nut trees surrounding each. Accordingly, families have little communication with each other, and neighbourly visits are seldom exchanged. The District Superintendent of Police, from whose Report I have gleaned the above, believes that this isolation is a great cause of the hasty and violent temper of the men, owing to their being free from anything like social restraint.

AGRICULTURAL.—Rice is the only cereal grown to any extent in the District, and is divided into three crops—the *áman*, or winter rice; *áus*, or autumn crop; and *boro*, or spring rice. The *áman* yields the finest grain, and is the staple crop of the District. It is sown on the setting in of the rains in April or May, transplanted from the beginning of June to the middle of August, and reaped in November and December. This crop requires to be carefully protected; and in a low-lying District like Bákarganj, covered with a complicated network of rivers and watercourses, its cultivation is attended with some risk, as the crop will not grow unless the ears of corn can keep well above the water. *Áman* rice may be divided into two sorts, namely, coarse (*motá*) and fine (*chikan*), but there are many minor varieties, as the following list will show:—(1) *Ghunsí;* (2) *char baleswar;* (3) *dal kachu;* (4) *pákar kání;* (5) *máti chál;* (6) *kálámemá;* (7) *báspáir;* (8) *bhog lashkar;* (9) *manteswar;* (10) *brindí;* (11) *hugli;* (12) *bhringal;* (13) *burápágalni;* (14) *gerá marddan;* (15) *bándarjatá;* (16) *sibjatá;* (17) *bauári;* (18) *manápáthálí;* (19) *dighalí;* (20) *ijalí;* (21) *dudh luchí;* (22) *guá chulí;*

(23) *latámanar*; (24) *phulbeki*; (25) *páriját*; (26) *mahish kándi*; (27) *kewá mau*; (28) *ghrita sáil*; (29) *tulá sáil*; (30) *lakshmí bilás*; (31) *Sitá bhog*; (32) *maidal*; (33) *silát*; (34) *naldog*; (35) *kárlik jál*; (36) *rupesá pairi*; (37) *dudh manar*; (38) *dudh ráj*; (39) *shakkar khorá*; (40) *gillá*; (41) *kálámánik*; (42) *dhalámánik*; (43) *dingá mánik*; (44) *rájá sáil*; (45) *ghigaj*; (46) *básbir*; (47) *kumrágair*; (48) *gashrá*; (49) *rúpsá*; (50) *saphrí*; (51) *chápláish*; (52) *san muktá*; (53) *bájráil*; (54) *net pásá*; (55) *lothá*; (56) *khaiá mugrí*; (57) *gilá máir*; (58) *airáj*; (59) *chengái*; (60) *gáburá*; (61) *botar gáburá*; (62) *cháprásh*; (63) *tepu sáil*; (64) *jabrá*; (65) *chittaráj*; (66) *játdighá*; (67) *ráendá*; (68) *maisar*; (69) *manar*; (70) *mahish dal*; (71) *pengarí*; (72) *betláj*; (73) *guá chor*; (74) *syám magar*; (75) *sudi*; (76) *katuápátak*; (77) *rudra bhog*; (78) *máti chák*; (79) *áskal*; (80) *saiba kálí*; (81) *áchrá*; (82) *baeleji*; (83) *kerángal*; (84) *jám burá*; (85) *baichári*; (86) *lohágará*; (87) *gandiánárí*; (88) *piprá lej*; (89) *dugdha kalam*; and (90) *kátí kshamá*.

The *áus* crop is sown in spring and early part of the hot weather, and reaped in August. In many parts of the District it is transplanted like the *áman* rice, but in the northern portion it is simply sown broadcast. Its twenty-one principal varieties are:—(1) *Binnáphul*; (2) *salai*; (3) *dhali mátiá*; (4) *maisar*; (5) *kálá mátiá*; (6) *jalai*; (7) *gareswar*; (8) *pipri*; (9) *sonár-gái*; (10) *baulán*; (11) *kálá sháitá*; (12) *ráimánik*; (13) *tiná chángrí*; (14) *hailek*; (15) *sháitá*; (16) *súrjyamani*; (17) *bháidá*; (18) *Lakshmí dighá*; (19) *súrjya mukhí*; (20) *bánspát*; (21) *aswiní*. The *áus* rice is not much used by those who can afford to buy *áman*, as it is supposed to cause diarrhœa.

The third rice crop, the *boro*, although not equal in importance to the *áman* or *áus* crops, is cultivated to a considerable extent on the alluvial river accretions, and on other low-lying grounds. It is generally sown broadcast in December, and is reaped in April or May, but is sometimes transplanted. It yields an abundant crop of a very coarse and hard rice, chiefly consumed by the poorer classes, who value it because it comes in at a season of the year when no other rice is ready. It is a quick-growing grain, and one variety of it gets the name of *shátiá*, the period from seed-time to harvest being only sixty days. No improvement appears to have taken place of late years in the quality of the rice grown in Bákarganj. The names of rice in the various stages of its growth are as follow:—the seed is called *bíj*; the young seedling, *chárá*; the full-grown plant, *gáchh*; the ear, *chharí*; unhusked rice, *dhán*; cleaned rice,

chául. The preparations made from rice are *chirá*, paddy steeped in water and afterwards fried and husked; *khai*, paddy parched and then husked; and *muri*, paddy boiled, husked, and afterwards parched; besides other varieties.

OTHER CROPS.—The principal green crops are *khesárí* (Lathyrus sativus), and *musurí* (Cicer lens), which are sown in the cold weather and cut in the spring. Among oil seeds, mustard, or *sarishá* (Sinapis dichotoma), is extensively cultivated in the Mádárípur Subdivision. The seed is sown in October after the land has been ploughed five or six times, and the crops gathered in the following February. *Til* (Sesamum orientale), and linseed, are also reared, but not to any great extent. (For the botanical names I trust to Sir G. Haughton.) The only fibre grown plentifully in the District is jute (*koshtá*), and this is almost entirely confined to the northern part. The principal miscellaneous crops are betel-nuts (*supárí*), cocoa-nuts (*nárikel*), sugar-cane (*ákh* or *ikshu*), and *pán*. The first two are very important in the south of the District and in the island of Dakshín Shábázpur, while the two last are principally cultivated in the Subdivision of Mádárípur. Safflower is also cultivated in the northern and higher parts of Bákarganj.

AREA; OUT-TURN AND VALUE OF CROPS, &c.—The total area of the District, as returned by the Surveyor-General in 1871, is 4939·13 square miles, of which, according to the Collector, nearly three-fourths, or 3439 square miles, is under cultivation. No information exists from which an estimate can be attempted of the comparative acreage under the principal corps. Inferior rice lands yield an out-turn of from eleven to thirteen hundredweights of unhusked rice per acre; good average lands from seventeen and a half to twenty-two hundredweights per acre; and very fine lands from thirty-three to forty-three hundredweights per acre. The price of paddy varies, but it is seldom worth to the cultivator more than 2s. 8d. a hundredweight. The Collector is of opinion, speaking generally, that a husbandman would be glad if he could sell his paddy on the ground at 2s. a hundredweight, and in many places the price is as low as 1s. 6d. or 1s. 8d. a hundredweight. In the low-lying *áman* lands, no second crop is obtained, but in *áus* land, and on the higher levels, a second or cold-weather crop is frequently grown. This crop, however, forms a comparatively unimportant one in the District. The above figures indicate the difficulty of fixing any exact sum as the value of the rice

crop per acre. But a fair calculation is as follows :—Taking the low average of a little over 8 *maunds* of paddy per *bighá*, or 18 cwts. per acre, and assuming the moderate average price of twelve *ánás* per *maund*, or 2s. per hundredweight of unhusked rice, the net yield to the husbandman would be £1, 16s. per acre. Straw is of little value in Bákarganj, and chiefly used for household purposes, such as thatching, and for the cattle. Deducting all expenses of rent and cost of cultivation, and allowing for second crops, straw, &c., the Collector estimates the ordinary net profit per acre to be £1, 10s. The ordinary class of husbandmen, with four acres of land, would therefore have an annual profit of £6. But it should be remembered that this is over and above the cost of cultivation, which includes an allowance for the labour of the husbandman himself.

CONDITION OF THE PEASANTRY.—Bákarganj is essentially a District of small husbandmen, where nearly every man has his own plot of ground, on which he grows sufficient for the wants of his family. Very few peasants cultivate as much as seventeen acres. A fair-sized holding would be from five to seven acres in extent, and the Collector reports that the average size of these little farms is as low as four acres. Anything below two-thirds of an acre would be considered as an exceptionally small holding, but the Collector states that a great many petty farms average from an acre to one and two-thirds. A single pair of oxen is able to cultivate five or five and a half acres of land, but not more. A farm of five acres in extent would not render a cultivator so well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper, but for the purpose of feeding a family, it would be better than a money wage of 16s. a month. The peasant class are often in debt, but they do not appear to be in the power of the village merchants and traders for advances to enable them to cultivate their fields. The general impression made upon the mind of the Collector during his annual tour through the District in 1871–72, was that the people were generally removed from poverty : the harvest that year had been an excellent one, and the lands appeared to be becoming more valuable every year. Most of the cultivators are believed to have obtained rights of occupancy, or at all events, the superior landlords seldom think of ousting them. The Collector is not aware of any cultivating proprietors in the District who pay rent direct to Government.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—The animals used in agriculture are oxen and buffaloes; goats, ducks, and fowls are reared as articles of

food. The only other domestic animals in the District are a few horses and ponies, dogs and cats. Large herds of buffaloes, representing a considerable amount of capital, are pastured in the uncultivated parts of the District for the sake of their milk. It is common for several owners to club together and establish a *báthán*, or grazing farm, where they tend the herd by turns, spending their time at their several homes when off duty. The value of an average cow is about £1, 10s.; of an average pair of oxen, £3; of a pair of buffaloes, £9; of a score of kids six months old, £3. Sheep are not reared in the District, but are worth about £4, 10s. a score when imported.

THE AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS in use are nearly the same as in the other Districts of the Division, viz.—(1) the plough (*hál*); (2) the *mai*, consisting of a log or plank, which is dragged over the soil by bullocks, to level the ground after ploughing; (3) the harrow (*áchrá*), used in the same manner as the above on dry soil; (4) a clod-breaker (*itá mugrí*), used by the hand; (5) a *niráni*, or weeder; (6) a *kánchí*, or sickle; (7) a heavy spade (*khantá*) for digging holes, ditching, embanking, &c.; (8) a hoe (*kodálí*); (9) an axe (*kuráli*); and (10) a billhook (*dáo*). The last two are not strictly agricultural implements, but are used for a variety of domestic and other purposes. A pair of oxen or buffaloes, with the agricultural implements mentioned above, excepting the four last, would be necessary for the cultivation of what is technically known as "one plough" of ground, which is equal to about five English acres. The cattle and implements would represent a capital of about £4.

WAGES AND PRICES have considerably increased of late, the price of labour having doubled itself within the last few years. Ordinary Coolie labour is very scarce, and sometimes cannot be procured. Such men are generally paid at the rate of sixpence a day, but in former years the rate was just one half. Agricultural day-labourers get sixpence, eightpence, and even a shilling a day, or about double what they were paid a few years ago. Reapers receive a share of the crop in return for their labour. Smiths, bricklayers, and carpenters are generally paid by the job; but where this is not the case, they receive from £1, 10s. to £2 per month. Articles of food have not risen in price in the same proportion, as a comparison of the following rates, which prevailed in 1859 and in 1871, will show. The best cleaned rice was worth 3s. 9d. a hundredweight in 1859; in 1871 it was worth from 4s. 9d. to 5s. 5d. a hundredweight. Com-

mon husked rice was selling at 3s. 5d. a hundredweight in 1859, and at from 4s. to 4s. 9d. a hundredweight in 1871. Best unshelled rice (paddy) rose from 1s. 8d. a hundredweight in 1859, to from 2s. to 2s. 8d. in 1871; and common unhusked rice, which sold at 1s. 6d. in the former year, rose to from 1s. 8d. to 2s. 4d. a hundredweight in 1871. Molasses sold at 13s. 7d. a hundredweight in 1859, and at from 13s. 7d. to 16s. 4d. a hundredweight in 1871. The highest price to which rice rose during the famine of 1866 was 17s. 1d. a hundredweight for the best quality of cleaned rice, and 8s. 10d. a hundredweight for unhusked rice. At that time the difference in price between the superior and inferior quality of grain was merely nominal. No barley, Indian corn, or indigo is grown in the District. The following were the average prices ruling for miscellaneous articles of produce in 1867, according to the Report of the then Collector, given at page 191 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division": —*Átá*, 11s. 3d. per hundredweight; barley, 5s. 8d.; betel-nut, 17s. 5d.; chilies, 21s.; cocoa-nuts, 1s. 3d. per score; coriander seed, 3s. 5d. per hundredweight; cotton, £3, 12s. 6d. per hundredweight; *dál* (pulses of various kinds), from 5s. 4d. to 15s. 1½d. per hundredweight; eggs, 3s. 2d. per hundred; firewood, 8s. 2d. a ton; flour, £1, 0s. 6d. a hundredweight; garlic, 7s. 4d. a hundredweight; *ghi* (clarified butter), from 8½d. to 10½d. per pound, for *ghi* made from buffalo's and cow's milk respectively; *gur* or molasses, made from sugar-cane, 10s. a hundredweight; ditto, made from date juice, 12s. 7½d. a hundredweight; gram, 10s. 11d. a hundredweight; grass (dry), 2s. per 20 sheaves; jute, 8s. per hundredweight; mustard seed, 6s. 8d. per hundredweight; oil (cocoa-nut), £2, 8s. 6d. per hundredweight; oil (linseed), £2, 3s. 5d. per hundredweight; oil (mustard), £1, 10s. per hundredweight; onions, 3s. 7½d. per hundredweight; potatoes, 10s. 11d. per hundredweight; salt, from 12s. 2d. to 17s. per hundredweight; *suji* (coarse rice flour), £1, 8s. 11d. per hundredweight; sugar-cane, 1s. 4d. per twenty sticks; sugar (date), 16s. per hundredweight; straw, 1s. 4d. per 20 bundles; *til*-seed, 8s. per hundredweight; tobacco, £1 per hundredweight; turmeric, 17s. per hundredweight; and wheat, 11s. 3d. per hundredweight.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—In addition to the standard bázár *man* or *maund* of 80 *tolás* to the *ser*, equivalent to 2 pounds, 0 ounces, 14 drams avoirdupois, and the *kánchi* or shorter *man* of 60 *tolás* to the *ser* = 1 pound, 8 ounces, 11 drams, the following local measures of weight are reported:—The Bákarganj *man* of 96 *tolás* to

the *ser* = 98 pounds, 11 ounces, 14 drams; the Alamganj *man* of $82\frac{5}{8}$ *tolás* = 84 pounds, 15 ounces, 12 drams; the *káni* of 72 *tolás* to the *ser* = 74 pounds, 0 ounces, 14 drams; and the *káni* of 64 *tolás* = 65 pounds, 13 ounces, 3 drams. The subdivisions of the *ser* are the same in Bákarganj as elsewhere. Long distances are generally measured by the time occupied in performing a journey; for shorter distances the *háth* or cubit of 18 inches is used. The *nal* is the standard of square measure, and varies in size in the various Fiscal Divisions from 7 feet 3 inches to 17 feet 3 inches. The day from sunrise to sunset is divided into four watches or *prahars*, and the night from sunset to sunrise into the same number; each *prahar* is divided into $7\frac{1}{2}$ *dands*, a *dand* being on an average equivalent to about 24 minutes of English time, but varies according to the seasons of the year.

Landless Labouring Classes.—In a District of peasant proprietors such as Bákarganj, where nearly every man cultivates his own patch of ground, there is no tendency towards the growth of a distinct class of day-labourers, neither owning nor cultivating fields on their own account. Some of the poorer of the petty proprietors engage themselves as hired labourers for the cultivation of their wealthier neighbours' holdings, and are generally paid at the rate of sixpence per diem, or double that amount if they use their own ploughs and bullocks. At harvest-time the District is annually invaded by immense numbers of reapers from Faridpur, who are paid by a share of the crop, generally one-fifth. Land is often cultivated on the *bargá* system, by which the cultivator uses his own cattle and implements, and receives a share of one-half of the crop, but these men can scarcely be classed in the category of hired labourers. Women are never employed in the fields, except in the case of poor Hindu widows, who are sometimes compelled to reap their own share of the family crops. Children are largely employed as cowherds, and in various sorts of light labour.

Varieties of Land Tenure.—There is not much spare land in the District, except in the forests of the Sundarban tracts. Land tenures of a favourable nature to the cultivators, and indicating the existence of surplus lands, are not common, nor are they known by any special names. In olden times, however, previous to the District being marked out in Fiscal Divisions, a tenure prevailed called *angal burí*, for the cultivation of jungle and waste lands. Many

persons undertook to cultivate such tracts, and these newly reclaimed lands were constituted *táluks*, and included in the rent roll of the nearest *zamíndár*. If the *tálukdár* died leaving heirs, the latter obtained possession of the lands; but if without heirs, the *zamíndár* managed the land on behoof of Government. The various intermediate tenures between the superior landlord and the actual cultivators are as follow :—*táluk, ausat táluk, ním ausat táluk, hawlá, ním hawlá, ausat ním hawlá, mirásh karshá*, and *káimí karshá*. The word *ním*, when used in naming a tenure, generally indicates that it is a subdivision of the parent tenure, *i.e.*, that the rights of subtenant do not extend to the whole, but only to a portion of the land included within the parent tenure; the word *ausat* simply means subordinate, and signifies a dependent tenure; *mirásh karshá* and *káimí karhsá* are hereditary cultivator's tenures held at a fixed rent, and practically these two represent the same thing. To this list must be added the *ijárá*, or ordinary farming lease and its sub-tenure *dar ijárá*, and which may be attached to any of the foregoing tenures. Most of the land in the District has passed from the hands of the superior landlords into those of intermediate holders, and in fact there is no District in Bengal in which the subdivision of tenures has been carried to a greater extent. Except in the case of newly formed alluvial lands, it is rare to find an instance in which there are not two or three middlemen between the proprietor of the soil and the actual cultivator. Act X. of 1859, although extensively worked, has not caused a general enhancement of rents throughout the District, but it has tended to render them uniform, and to enhance lands held on terms unduly favourable to the cultivator. An account of the working of this Act will be found on a subsequent page; also a separate chapter on Tenures.

RATES OF RENT.—Rice land rents at from 3s. to 18s. per acre, according to quality and situation; newly formed alluvial lands on which *boro* rice is grown in the cold season fetches 1s. 6d. an acre; sugar-cane and *pán* plantations, £1, 4s. an acre; high land, on which cotton, garden crops, and thatching grass are grown, from 9s. to 15s. an acre according to quality; homestead lands surrounding the dwelling, on which betel-nut, cocoa-nut, and fruit trees are cultivated, at from 9s. to 30s. an acre, according to quality and the number of trees growing upon it; land occupied by buildings pays 9s. an acre.

The above rates were returned by the Collector in February 1871,

and refer to the District in general. The rate, however, varies considerably in different parts of the country. I shall now give in detail the exact figures showing the rates paid by actual cultivators for the ordinary descriptions of crops in each subdivision. I have condensed them from a return submitted to the Government of Bengal in August 1872.

HEADQUARTERS SUBDIVISION.—Tháná Kotwálí; rate for first-class rice land, from 7s. 6¾d. to 10s. 7¼d. an acre; second-class rice land from 3s. 9¼d. to 7s. 6¾d. an acre; third-class rice land from 2s. 3¼d. to 6s. 0¾d. an acre. Some rice lands in the Headquarters Subdivision rent at 12s. an acre, but this is exceptional, the ordinary rate being about 6s. an acre. New land, and land in the neighbourhood of jungle, &c., is let as low as 2s. 3d. an acre.

MÁDÁRÍPUR SUBDIVISION.—(1) Mádárípur Police Circle; ordinary rate of rent for rice, jute, and mustard land, from 6s. 0¾d. to 7s. 6¾d. an acre. (2) Mulfatganj Police Circle; ordinary rate for rice, jute, and mustard land, from 4s. 6½d. to 6s. 0¾d. per acre; rates for sugar-cane land, from 8s. 4d. to 9s. 1d. per acre. (3) Gaurnadí Police Circle; rates of rent for high land producing *áman* or winter rice, from 8s. 4d. to 9s. 1d. per acre; rate for low lands growing *áus* rice and jute, from 6s. 0¾d. to 6s. 9¾d. per acre. (4) Kotwálípárá Police Circle; rates for land producing rice and jute, from 3s. 9¾d. to 5s. 3¾d. an acre. The Mádárípur Subdivision comprises the northern part of Bákarganj, and, with the exception of the marshy tracts in Kotwálípárá, is the highest and most civilised part of the District.

PIROZPUR SUBDIVISION.—Pirozpur Police Circle; rates for rice land, from 5s. 10½d to 11s. 9d. an acre; rates for cocoa-nut and betel-nut lands, from 11s. 9d. to 17s. 7¼d. per acre. Very little jute or sugar-cane is grown in this Subdivision, rice being the staple crop. Much of the land is very low, and the rates vary a great deal. In the large Government estate of Tuskhálí, in the Mathbáriá Police Circle, the prevailing rate is 7s. 6d., but the rates in the neighbourhood are 9s. and 10s. 6d. an acre. In *chars* and near large rivers the rates are lower, and range from 3s. to 6s. an acre.

DAKSHÍN SHÁHBÁZPUR SUBDIVISION.—Rates for first-class high rice land, from 6s. 3¾d. to 9s. 5½d. an acre; rates for second-class low rice land, from 4s. 8¼d. to 6s. 3¾d. an acre. The land in Dakshín Sháhbázpur is generally high, but there is a good deal of *char* and waste land towards the south. The staple crop of the island is rice. Jute and cotton are likewise grown, the rate of rent being the

same as for rice. The island also produces abundance of betel-nuts and cocoa-nuts, and for such land the rate is higher, namely, at the rent of homestead land.

PATUÁKHÁLÍ SUBDIVISON.—(1) Aurangpur; *áman* rice land, from 4s. 2d. to 18s. 2d. an acre; *áus* rice land, from 1s, 6d. to 15s. 5½d. an acre. (2) Bozargomedpur; both *áman* and *áus* rice land, from 9s. 1d. to 13s. 7½d. an acre. (3) Ratandí Kálikápur Fiscal Division; both *áman* and *áus* rice land, from 4s. 6½d. to 9s. 1d. an acre. (4) Chandradwíp Fiscal Division; *áman* land, from 4s. 6½d. to 15s. 10¾d. an acre; *áus* land, from 4s. 6½d. to 6s. 0¼d. an acre. (5) Jafarábád Rafiánagar Fiscal Division; both *áman* and *áus* land, from 9s. 1d. to 10s. 7¼d. an acre. (6 and 7) Khaniá Bahádurnagar, and Tappá Azímpur Fiscal Divisions; rates for both *áman* and *áus* lands, from 10s. 7¼d. to 12s. 1½d. per acre. These are the seven principal Fiscal Divisions in Patuákhálí Subdivision. There are, however, several estates south of these, situated in the Sundarbans, the rates of which vary from 4s. 6½d. to 6s. 0½d. per acre on estates situated in the proximity of the sea-shore; while for the same description of land situated further inland, the rates are from 6s. 0¾d. to 9s. 1d. per acre. The lands of these estates are assessed as one class, under the general name of paddy land, notwithstanding that other crops may be cultivated on it. A very slight difference in the rate is made, according to the nature of the soil, high lands paying a little more than low-lying fields.

No records exist in the District showing the prevailing rates of rent before or at the time of the Permanent Settlement, as the papers relating to Bákarganj before its separation from the District of Dacca Jalálpur early in the century were left in the Dacca Collectorate. Instances may be pointed out in which the rent of particular cultivators have been doubled, and many other instances in which they have been increased by one-half, but such enhancements do not appear to have been uniformly extended over any entire Fiscal Division or village.

MANURE is not used except on *pán* plantations, in which oil-cake is employed for the purpose; the cost of the manure is stated to be about 12s. an acre. Irrigation is not practised. Rotation of crops is almost unknown, and *pán* and sugar-cane are the only ones which cannot be grown year after year on the same land. In the case of these crops, it is necessary in every alternate year either to allow the field to lie fallow, or to grow some other and lighter crop upon it.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.—The District is subject to blights and floods. Droughts are unknown, and no safeguards against them seem necessary. There are two kinds of insects which occasionally injure the rice crops. The first is called *Pámaripoká*, and is a small black fly, which makes its appearance from July to September, and feeds upon the tender leaves of the newly transplanted rice, injuring, but seldom totally destroying, the crop. The other is called *Ledápoká* or *Chhánápoká*. It generally makes its appearance in the cold season when there are several consecutive cloudy days without rain, but it disappears again as soon as rain falls. It is a crawling insect, with a light-coloured body and black head, concealing itself during the day, and eating the ears of the ripening rice crop by night. It frequently does a considerable amount of mischief, and is stated, in 1851, to have materially affected the prosperity of the agricultural classes.

FLOODS are generally caused by the rising of the rivers before they enter the District, and not by excessive rainfall upon the low-lying tracts within it; but another cause of inundation consists of the incursion of sea-water in consequence of cyclones or unusually high tides. Such a flood not only causes an immediate loss of crop, but does lasting injury to the lands lying near the sea-coast, by impregnating them with salt water. The *áman* or cold-weather rice is the principal crop of Bákarganj. Although liable to considerable injury by inundation, and the consequent destruction of the seedlings on the newly-transplanted shoots, necessitating a second sowing or transplanting at unseasonable times, it never suffers total destruction. The *áus* or autumn rice, on the other hand, is a very precarious crop, and is often wholly or partially destroyed, as was the case in 1870, by inundation. In 1822 a flood occurred, which seriously affected the general prosperity of the District. In that year, the price of rice in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, which suffered most severely, rose to the highest rate which has been known to prevail in the present century. The Magistrate of the District distributed gratuitously about 125 tons of grain, and reported that the loss of life was computed at 39,960, the loss of cattle 98,830, besides a loss of miscellaneous property valued at £132,669. It was in this inundation that the valuable records of the Collectorate were swept away and totally destroyed. Destructive floods also occurred in the years 1825, 1832, 1855, 1867, 1869, and 1870, but no general distress appears to have resulted. There are no important embankments or other protective

works against inundation in the District, and the Collector reports that the construction of such works would be impossible except at gigantic cost.

COMPENSATING INFLUENCES OF FLOODS.—In seasons when the rainfall is unusually heavy, some increase takes place in the fertility of the uplands, and it becomes profitable to cultivate exhausted lands which otherwise would not yield a profit. But the injury caused by floods to the low lands greatly exceeds the increased fertility to the higher levels. It may be set down as a general rule in Bákarganj, that the lower the water-level during the height of the rains, the better are the crops.

FAMINE WARNINGS.—The Collector states that he has been unable to ascertain the highest prices of staple grains caused by natural calamities prior to 1865, but in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," at the Section relating to Bákarganj, page 149, it is stated that during the famine caused by the inundation of 1822 the price of rice rose to 14s. 11d. per hundredweight. During the famine of 1866, the maximum price of paddy was 8s. 10½d. a hundredweight, and of husked rice 17s. 1d. a hundredweight. These high prices were caused, not by any failure of the crop within the District, but by the great demand from other parts of the country. Prices still range somewhat higher than they did before the famine of 1866, and it is doubtful whether they will ever again resume their former level. It is impossible to state definitely what prices for food grains might be taken as indicative of impending famine. Not only is Bákarganj a rice-exporting District, but it differs materially from other localities as regards its liability to climatic influences, inasmuch as a drought which would seriously diminish the crop elsewhere, might in this District prove rather beneficial than otherwise. If the rates for rice were as high as 17s. 1d. and for paddy 8s. 10½d. a hundredweight in January or February, or soon after the harvest had been gathered in, and if these enhanced rates were known to arise from failure of the crop within the District, the Collector states that this might safely be regarded as a warning of famine later in the year. If these rates were further increased by fifty per cent., the Collector is of opinion that relief operations on the part of Government would become necessary. It must be borne in mind, however, that the mere fact of prices doubling or trebling themselves would not necessarily indicate the existence of famine; it might merely show that the agricultural classes were profiting by the misfortunes of other Districts, as

was the case in 1866. The proportion of the population which does not directly share in the produce of the soil is so small that the increased difficulty which they would experience in supplying themselves with food at such a time need scarcely be taken into consideration. The only fact which could be taken as certainly indicating impending famine in Bákarganj, would be a total or nearly total failure of the *áman* crop, upon which the District mainly depends. The *áus* crop at the best only suffices to support, during about three months in the year, those few husbandmen who grow it; and throughout the greater part of Bákarganj the crop is not cultivated at all. The *áus* harvest could not possibly suffice for the support of the population in case of the failure of the *áman* crop. In the event of a serious famine requiring Government intervention and relief, the network of navigable rivers with which the District is covered would afford ample means of importation from neighbouring Districts and from the sea.

Foreign and Absentee Landlords.—There are several Greek, Portuguese, and Armenian landholders in the District, whose families have been settled in the country for many generations past, but the only European proprietors strictly so called, are the Messrs Morrell, and their holdings in Bákarganj are not large. Of Muhammadan landowners, 773 are registered as the proprietors of 462 estates, bearing an aggregate land assessment of £12,834, 10s. The greater part of Bákarganj is owned by absentee landlords; in fact, hardly any owners of large estates live in the District. The largest and most wealthy of these absentee proprietors is Rájá Satyánand Ghoshál, of Calcutta.

Roads.—In a District like Bákarganj, where there are so many large rivers which serve as a means of communication throughout its entire length and breadth, there is no need for many roads, and, indeed, there is not one Imperial line of road maintained by the Public Works Department. The following are five short roads within the Barisál subdivision, and which are all under local management:—(1) Road from Barisál to Jhálakátí, ten miles; average expense of maintenance during the three years ending 1870, £144. (2) Road from Rúpátalí, on the Jhálakátí road, to Nalchití, six miles; average annual cost, £71, 4s. (3) Road from Barisál to Mádhabpásá, five miles; average annual cost, £11, 6s. (4) Road from Amánatganj, a suburb of Barisál, to Táltalí, two miles; average annual expense, £38, 16s. (5) Road from Barisál to Lákhutiá, six

miles; average annual cost, *nil*, for the three years ending 1870. There are also several roads in the town of Barisál which are under the management of the Municipal Committee. In the Subdivision of Dakshín Sháhbázpur there are a few roads which have been neglected for a long period, and which it is now proposed to repair. The principal is from Daulat Khán, the chief mart in the island, to Bholá, a distance of twelve miles; and another from Bholá to Gházípurá, six miles; these roads, however, are merely foot and bridle paths, and are not adapted for wheeled traffic. There are no roads within the Subdivisions of Pirozpur and Mádárípur. No large markets have lately sprung up on the routes of traffic.

MANUFACTURES.—The only local manufactures are those of pottery, coarse cloth, oil, and *gur* or molasses. Earthenware is made in large quantities; and at Nalchití, its principal seat of manufacture, the potters show great taste in their wares. Ordinary country cloth is manufactured after the usual manner of the weavers in other parts of Bengal. The finest kind of mat is the *sítal páti*, made from the stem of the *páthirá* reed (Phrynium dichotornium). Common mats are manufactured from the *hoglá*, or large bulrush (Typha elephantinum), and from the stem of the *nal* reed (Arendo tepalis). The processes of manufacture are of the usual kind, and Bákarganj has no industrial specialty whatever. The condition of the manufacturing classes is fairly prosperous. Manufactures are carried on by the people in their own houses and on their own account; the employment of hired labour for such purposes is rare.

COMMERCE AND TRADE.—A list of the principal towns and seats of commerce has been given on a previous page. The trade of Nalchití is said to be decaying, in consequence of the silting up of the river on which it is situated. Besides these fixed marts, there are several religious fairs or *melás* held annually, at which a considerable trade is carried on. The following is a list of the most important of these gatherings:—(1) Kálísurí fair, held every year in the month of November. There is a large banian-tree here, which is held sacred among the Musalmáns of the District, and at which pilgrims come and offer up cattle in sacrifice. The fair is said to be attended by about twelve thousand persons. (2) Kulsokátí fair, is held in the month of November every year, and lasts for a week. This fair was first started about fifteen years ago, and is attended by about eight thousand persons. (3) Lákutiá fair, also held in November, lasts for seven days, being attended by about

ten thousand persons. (4) Nalchirá fair, held in April for seven days, and attended by about three thousand persons. This fair is celebrated for the horse-racing which takes place. (5) Pirozpur fair is held in March on the occasion of the *Doljátrá* festival, and continues for a week, being visited by about five thousand persons. (6) Bhandáriá fair is held every year in the month of April, at the time of the Asok Ashtami Snán, and lasts for seven days. About 4000 persons gather at this fair, and the people enter keenly into horse-racing and other sports. (7 and 8) Jhálakátí and Bánaripárá fairs, both held in November at the *Diwálí* festival, and each attended by about eight thousand persons. None of these fairs, however, are of more than local importance. The trade of the District is principally carried on at the permanent markets, to which these fairs are subsidiary. Rice, areca-nuts, cocoa-nuts, and *sundrí* timber are exported to a very large extent. There is also considerable export trade in jute and *pán* leaves from the Mádárípur Subdivision. None of the manufactures of the District are exported, with the exception of pottery. The principal articles of import are salt, tobacco, oil, oil-seeds, pulses of various kinds, hardware, cloth, shoes, &c. The exports far exceed the imports in value, but the District does not seem to derive the full benefit of this activity of its exportations and rice-trade, as the Collector states that probably the greater part of the excess value of the exports over the imports goes into the pockets of non-resident landholders and heads of commercial firms, as well as of the non-resident class of traders and professional men who temporarily carry on business in the District, but whose families live elsewhere.

Capital and Interest.—Coin is sometimes hoarded, but accumulations are more commonly employed in trade, in the purchase of land, or in usury. In small loan transactions, where the borrower pawns some article equal in value to the amount of the money lent, the rate of interest is at the rate of from seven pence halfpenny to fifteen pence in the pound sterling per mensem, or from 37½ to 75 per cent. per annum. The rate in large transactions, when a mortgage is given, varies from one to two per cent. per month. If a husbandman is compelled to borrow money in order to cultivate his land, the usual arrangement is for the borrower to repay the loan at harvest-time by the delivery of paddy to the value of half as much again as the amount of the loan, the calculation being made according to the rate at which grain

was selling at the time of borrowing. That is, if a man borrows a rupee in June when paddy was selling at a hundredweight and a half per rupee, he would have to give at harvest-time two and a quarter hundredweights of paddy, whatever might be the price at that time. Grain, however, is always much cheaper after the harvest than it is in the middle of the year. The usual selling price of land is reported at twelve years' purchase, in which case the money invested would yield 8⅓ per cent. Native banking establishments are carried on at the towns of Barisál, Jhálakátí, Sáhibganj, and Nalchití, but loans are conducted by all classes of the community, whether agricultural or commercial, who have spare money at their disposal.

IMPORTED CAPITAL.—No trade or manufacture is at present conducted in Bákarganj either with European capital or by European agency. Several indigo factories formerly existed, but the manufacture has long since ceased.

NEWSPAPERS.—One newspaper is published in the District, but is printed in Calcutta, under the title of the *Barisál Bárttábaha*, a monthly newspaper in the Bengali character, and with a circulation of about 150 subscribers.

INCOME-TAX.—The Collector estimates the total value of incomes of the District, as assessed for the purposes of the Income-Tax Act of 1870—that is, the total amount of all incomes over £50 a year—at between £500,000 and £600,000. But the net amount of income-tax realised in 1870–71 amounted only to £12,415, 10s., the rate of assessment being 3⅛ per cent.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—Like all the other Districts of Eastern Bengal, Bákarganj has steadily advanced in prosperity since its administration came into the hands of English officers, and especially of late years, since 1858, when the government passed to the Crown. From the time of the acquisition of Bengal by the British, up to the end of 1817, Bákarganj formed a part of the Dacca Collectorate. It was then formed into a separate Collectorship, with the principal object of encouraging enterprising persons to cultivate the immense tracts of waste lands which formed parts of, or were adjacent to, the District. In 1818, the first year after its separation from Dacca, the net revenue of the District amounted to £96,438, 10s., and the net civil expenditure to £13,647, 14s. Two years later, in 1820, the net District revenue had slightly decreased to £95,709, 2s., while the net expenditure on

civil administration had increased to £16,659, 8s. During the next forty years, both revenue and expenditure rapidly increased, and in 1860–61 the net revenue of the District amounted to £150,305, 18s., and the net civil expenditure to £32,584, 16s. In 1870–71 the net revenue of the District amounted to £203,445, 1s., and the net civil expenditure to £44,902, 7s. 11d. Between 1818 and 1860, therefore, the net revenue of Bákarganj District increased by 55 per cent., while the expenditure more than doubled, having increased by 139 per cent. In the following ten years, from 1860–61 to 1870–71, the increase in revenue was still more marked, it having advanced by 35 per cent., while the civil expenditure increased 38 per cent. From the time of Bákarganj being formed into a separate District at the close of 1817, up to 1870–71, or within a period of fifty-two years, the revenue increased by 111 per cent., or more than doubled itself, while the civil expenditure increased by 229 per cent., or multiplied itself nearly three and a half times during the same period.

The following balance-sheets of the District for three different periods—namely, for the years 1818, 1850–51, and 1870–71, as furnished by the Collector, illustrate the increase of revenue and expenditure under the various heads of charges and receipts:—

BALANCE-SHEET OF BÁKARGANJ DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1818.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
1. Land Revenue	£89,566 8 0	1. Excise	£442 12 0
2. Stamp Duties	2,595 0 0	2. Stamps	182 0 0
3. Profit and Loss	1,286 16 0	3. Profit and Loss	1,075 16 0
4. Post-Office Receipts	277 12 0	4. Post-Office Expenditure	10 16 0
5. Revenue from Miscellaneous Taxes (*sayer*), Excise and Opium	2,712 14 0	5. Judicial Charges, general	8,790 2 0
		6. Revenue Charges, general	3,115 18 0
		7. Pensions	10 4 0
		8. Purchase of Land	0 10 0
		9. Petty Charges	19 16 0
Total	£96,438 10 0	Total	£13,647 14 0

BALANCE-SHEET OF BÁKARGANJ DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1850-51.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
1. Land Revenue	£106,133 16 0	1. Collection Charges in Government Estates	£44 8 0
2. Stamp Duties,	8,747 2 0	2. Stamp Charges	719 14 0
3. Excise Duties	4,955 12 0	3. Excise Charges	1,551 2 0
4. Post-Office Receipts	344 2 0	4. Post-Office Expenditure	186 12 0
5. Salt	100 2 0	5. Salt,	1,337 2 0
6. Profit and Loss	41,014 14 0	6. Profit and Loss	378 10 0
7. Law Charges	250 12 0	7. Law Charges	246 10 0
8. Committee of Records	13 14 0	8. Pensions	67 4 0
9. Fees of Native Revenue Collectors (*Tahsíldárs*)	31 14 0	9. Purchase of Lands	0 2 0
		10. Bills payable in the Revenue Department	1,231 4 0
		11. Charges General of the General Department	33 12 0
		12. Judicial Charges, general	11,836 18 0
		13. Revenue Charges, general	5,438 14 0
		14. Vernacular Schools	36 0 0
		15. Interest on Loans	928 14 0
Total	£161,591 8 0	Total	£24,036 6 0

From the foregoing, however, item No. 5 must be deducted from the expenditure side, which leaves a net District expenditure of £22,699, 4s. Salt was largely produced in Bákarganj for export to other Districts, and the charge for its manufacture, though disbursed from the Bákarganj Treasury, was not properly debitable as a charge against the District.

BALANCE-SHEET OF BÁKARGANJ DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1870–71.

REVENUE.				EXPENDITURE.			
1. Land Revenue (current demand)	£142,232	6	0	1. Salary of Gazetted Officers	£5,497	14	9
2. Forests	122	14	0	2. Collector's and Magistrate's Establishment, Travelling Allowances, Contingencies, &c.	4,205	13	0
3. Sale of Government Estates, Fees, &c.	2,836	2	0	3. Khás Mahal Expenses	105	13	3
4. Peon's Fee (revenue)	897	2	0	4. Excise	696	18	0
5. Excise	6,381	2	0	5. Income-Tax	689	9	1
6. Income-Tax	12,352	18	4	6. Law and Justice	9,947	17	3
7. Stamps	21,515	9	4	7. Medical	1,152	2	4
8. Civil Courts	3,220	4	4	8. Jail (exclusive of Police Guard)	1,497	2	0
9. Criminal Courts	1,326	4	0	9. Regular Police	10,755	16	0
10. Jail Manufactures and Convict Labour	259	13	3	10. Municipal Police	306	0	0
11. Miscellaneous Receipts	1,099	8	0	11. Town Fund	1,360	14	9
12. Town Fund (Act VI. of 1868)	312	0	5	12. Chaukidárí Fund	481	1	2
13. Chaukidárí Fund (Act XX. of 1856)	362	19	1	13. Pound Fund	217	19	7
14. Ferry Fund	211	1	0	14. Circuit-House Fund	19	19	6
15. Pound Fund	306	7	10	15. Zamíndárí Dák Fund	1,380	8	11
16. Circuit-House Fund	21	0	0	16. Amalgamated District Road Fund	693	12	0
17. Zamíndárí Dák Fund	2,190	4	6	17. Fund for Improvement of Government Estates	694	2	9
18. Road Cess Fund	299	15	6	18. Canal Tolls	403	3	0
19. Fund for Improvement of Government Estates	830	0	0	19. Post-Office	1,200	13	0
20. Sheriff's Fees, and Pleaders' Examination Fees	38	8	0	20. Education	3,416	7	7
21. Canal Tolls	2,632	3	0	21. Ecclesiastical	180	0	0
22. Post-Office	1,803	8	0				
23. Education (Schooling Fees and Subscriptions, &c.)	2,194	10	5				
Total	£203,445	1	0	Total	£44,902	7	11

LAND SETTLEMENTS.—The following paragraphs with regard to the land revenue of the District under the Mughuls, and the early days of our rule, are condensed from Mr Sutherland's Report on

Bákarganj, pp. 150–154 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division." I have to trust to him for their accuracy.

In treating of the early settlement of this District and its revenue system, it may not be out of place to refer briefly to the four historical Settlements of Bengal in the pre-British period, for the details of which I am indebted to Mr J. Grant's "Analysis of the Revenue of Bengal." The first is the well-known Settlement in the time of Akbar under his eminent Finance Minister Rájá Todar Mall. This Settlement was made in 1582. The Khálsá, or State lands, were divided into 19 *Sarkárs*, which included 682 *Parganás*. Bákarganj was, no doubt, included in the *Sarkár* of Sonárgáon, which comprised 52 *Parganás*, and was assessed at £25,828. The next Settlement of Bengal was made in 1658 by Prince Shujá, the son of Sháh Jahán and Viceroy of Bengal, during his short-lived supremacy, after he had conspired to depose his father, and previous to his complete defeat by his brother Aurangzeb, and his flight to Arákán, and his obscure ending. This Settlement shows 34 *Sarkárs*, which included 1350 *Parganás*, whose rental was assessed at £1,311,590. His readjustment is of importance, as it includes, for the first time, the Sundarbans under the name of Murádkháná. The next Settlement of Bengal was made by Nawáb Jafar Khán, Viceroy of Bengal, in A.D. 1721, in the reign of Muhammad Sháh. A few years before this, *i.e.*, in 1707, the seat of Government was removed from Dacca, then known as Jahángírnagar, to Murshidábád. This Settlement re-constituted the whole province of Bengal into 13 *Chaklás*, subdivided into 1600 *Parganás*. Bákarganj and the Sundarbans were included in Chaklá Jahángírnagar, which composed 236 *Parganás*, at a rental of £192,829. The last Settlement was made by Nawáb Kásim Alí Khán, better known as Mír Kásim, two years before our acquisition of the Díwání in 1765 A.D. The Permanent Settlement in Bengal is supposed to be based on this Settlement, so far as could be gathered from the papers furnished to Government at that time. The Settlement of Mír Kásim in 1763 left the previous Settlement of 1721 untouched, so far as the Government lands were concerned, but went more exactly into details regarding the unappropriated or *jágír* lands. Under orders of the Board of Revenue, dated 29th December 1790, a Novennial Settlement came into operation from the 20th May 1791, and Mr Massie, the Collector, complains bitterly of the *benámí* system which prevailed at that time. He observes in his letter dated 24th March 1801:—"Sufficient regard

was not paid in this District at the conclusion of the Decennial Settlement to the ascertaining and recording the names of the actual proprietors of rent-paying lands for the time being, in consequence of which the Government not unfrequently suffers losses in its revenue, &c." The Decennial Settlement began in 1791 (some time later than in other parts of Bengal, and hence sometimes called here the Novennial Settlement). The revenue jurisdiction of Bákarganj at present (1873) comprises fifty-four Fiscal Divisions, or *Parganás*, the total land revenue realised in 1871–72 being £143,156. A list of the Fiscal Divisions, showing the number of estates comprised in each, together with the area and amount of land revenue, &c., will be found on a subsequent page. But the Government records disclose special points of interest in the history of five of the Fiscal Divisions, namely, Bozargomedpur, Chandradwíp, Salímábád, Idalpur, and Kotwálípárá.

PARGANÁ BOZARGOMEDPUR.—Of the five, the most interesting is Bozargomedpur Fiscal Division, from its early history in connection with Rájá Rájballabh, the Finance Minister, and afterwards Governor of Dacca, under the Nawáb Názim of Bengal; from its numerous subordinate tenures; and from the trouble which it gave to the Collector at the time of the Permanent Settlement, and for some few years after it. In the Settlement of 1721 A.D. by Nawáb Jafar Khán, the rental of Parganá Bozargomedpur was entered at £465. In 1867 it was returned at £34,059. Bozargomedpur, with the Fiscal Divisions of Rájnagar and Kártikpur, Shujábád, formed the *zamíndárí* of Rájá Rájballabh, into whose possession the property came in 1761 A.D. The assessment (*jamábandí*) of the estate, formed after a careful measurement made the previous year, amounted to £20,903. Previously to Rájá Rájballabh's death, he subdivided his estate by creating Bozargomedpur and Rájnagar into a *zamíndárí* in the name of the god Lakshmí-Náráyan, and Shujábád Fiscal Division into a separate estate in the name of the goddess Durgá. Rájballabh's death opened the way to intrigues and frauds not unknown in the present day. One of his grandsons, Pítámbar Sen, claimed a five-sixteenths share of the property; and on the latter's death, his widow, Sonámukhí, revived the claim on the ground of Rájá Rájballabh's loyalty to the East India Company,—a loyalty which cost him his life at the hands of the Nawáb Kásim Alí Khán.

Bozargomedpur comprised 594 *táluks*, or *shikmí* tenures as they

are locally called. The papers of Mr G. P. Thompson, Head Assistant to the Collector of Dacca, show that the gross Government revenue (*sadr jamá*), about 1760, was *Bárí* Rs. 2,39,653, from which Rs. 5798 were deducted for deserted lands. Mr Massie, the Collector, in his letter dated 22d December 1801, states that "the deserted lands had been brought, either wholly or in part, into cultivation since Mr Thompson's time, and had been re-annexed to the rent-roll of the *Jamá*, so that the net *mufassal jamá* is now what the gross Fiscal Division was before, viz., *Bárí* Rs. 2,39,653-15-0, from which deducting báttá at the rate of 3 per cent., viz., Rs. 7118-1-5-1, the amount of the mufassal *jamá* in the *sikká* specie is Rs. 2,32,534-14-9-3." A Parganá which included a great many independent subordinate tenures naturally gave constant trouble to the Collector in the collection of the Government revenue. The early records are full of the steps taken at different times to realise Government arrears. In 1801 A.D., the Fiscal Division was bought in by Government for arrears of revenue; and after having been held during many years under *khás* management, it was finally settled in 1857. Some time ago the right of Government to resume several *shikmí táluks* was duly confirmed by the Civil Court. The proprietary rights of Government in very many of the estates have been sold under the Board's rules.

PARGANÁ SALÍMÁBÁD.—The assessment of this Fiscal Division under the Muhammadan Government, by the Settlement of 1721, was £4316, 12s. In 1867 it was returned at £12,119. A large portion of this Fiscal Division belongs to the Ghoshál family. The old records show that a five-sixteenths share belonged to Gokul Chandra Ghoshál, whilst Kálísankar Ghoshál bought a three-sixteenths share at a public sale for £2600. The share of Gokul Chandra Ghoshál had previously belonged to Bhawání Charan Rái, and had thence passed into the hands of Kásináth Rái, and lastly became the property of Gokul Chandra Ghoshál, an ancestor of the family which was ennobled by Lord Ellenborough during the Sindh war, when the title of Rájá was conferred on Kálí Sankar Ghoshál for having bought up a large amount of Government securities at a time when public credit was very low. The Ghoshál family had long held the half share of Salímábád. The late Rájá Satya Charan Ghoshál was a very liberal-minded man, and did a great deal of good in this District. He spent much money on a road to Jhálakátí, the headquarters of his estate, where he had built an imposing

mansion, and laid out gardens. Jhálakátí, or, as it is now called, Mahárájganj, has become a *bandar* or mart of great importance in the Eastern Districts. A petition presented by Mr Domingo de Silva to the Judge on 20th March 1805, and sent by him to Government, whence it was forwarded to the Collector for report through the Board, throws considerable light on the early history of the Fiscal Division. From this petition it would appear that Salímábád first composed ten Parganás, viz., Tappá Havilí Salímábád, Sundarkul Rudrapur Tappá Jahánpur, Parganá Bangáon, Tappá Sultánábád, Tappá Sultánpur, Parganá Kásimpur, Parganá Názírpur, Parganá Rájor, Tappá Havilí Nimak Mahal, Parganá Sibpur. These ten Parganás formed the whole of Parganá Salímábád, which was originally divided into two estates; the larger estate was afterwards equally subdivided into two estates, and one of these was again subdivided into two equal shares. It is one of these last shares, together with the five-sixteenths share bought by Kálí Sankar Ghoshál, that still belongs to the Ghoshál family. The lands of this Fiscal Division were long uncultivated, owing to its being a seat of the manufacture of salt. It is now one of the most profitable estates in this District.

Parganá Chandradwíp.—This Fiscal Division was assessed at £660 at the time of the Muhammadan Settlement of 1721. The rental in 1867 was returned at £20,138. The collection of the revenue of this Fiscal Division was a source of constant trouble to Government. It was under attachment for years; and, after fruitless endeavours to realise outstanding balances, it was put up for sale in 1799 A.D. At the time of the Decennial Settlement it was offered at the assessment of 1789, viz., £8972, 10s. One source of arrears lay in the very many independent *táluks* into which the Fiscal Division was subdivided. Among these were some very intricate rent-free tenures, particularly the *Nánkár* and *Hissázát*. The latter were lands originally exempted from the payment of revenue during the time of the native Government in consideration of the personal services of the zamíndár, and his supplying troops for repelling the incursions of the Maghs. Under instructions from Government, the Board eventually directed that *Nánkár* and *Hissázát* lands should be included in *málguzárí* or rent-paying lands.

Parganá Idalpur.—This Fiscal Division appears as the most troublesome in the whole District. So far back as 1790, the Col-

lector objected to settle the Parganá with the former proprietors, who were generally known as the Chaudhrís of Idalpur. The Board, however, in their letter dated 29th April 1790, directed the Collector to offer the Decennial Settlement to the Chaudhrís at the rental fixed in 1789, and thought that, in the absence of satisfactory proof of the profligacy of character with which the Collector charged them, they should have the first offer of the Decennial Settlement. The Fiscal Division had to be attached for arrears in 1791, and the arrears due from the proprietors could only be enforced after a decree of the Civil Court. This state of things went on for years. The Board, in their letter dated 20th July 1804, gave the proprietors one more chance, and directed the Collector to deliver over possession of the Parganá to the proprietors, on the distinct understanding that if they offered any further opposition, or showed any recusancy in the payment of their rents, the estate would be put up to sale. A few years afterwards, *i.e.*, in 1812, the Parganá was finally put up for sale, and bought by Mohiní Mohan Tagore, of Calcutta, an uncle of the celebrated Dwárkánáth Tagore. A very serious affray took place when the auction-purchaser ventured to take possession of his property, in consequence of the armed resistance offered to him by the Chaudhrís, the ex-proprietors of Idalpur. The transfer to the Tagores was attended with satisfactory results. The Government revenue has never been in jeopardy since that time, and the cultivators are, on the whole, said to be better cared for in this than in any other Fiscal Division in the District.

PARGANÁ KOTWÁLÍPÁRÁ.—The Government rental of this Fiscal Division at the time of the Muhammadan Settlement of 1721 was assessed at £692, 12s. In 1867 it was returned at £244, 18s. This is of some importance, as the present rental shows a considerable decrease on the former assessment,—a fact which can only be explained by the existence of infinitesimal shares in the Fiscal Division. It is a striking fact that, whilst the value of land has increased everywhere else in the District, and whilst the Government revenue has also increased in every other Fiscal Division, Kotwálípárá alone shows a decided decrease. The early records make but little reference to this Fiscal Division, which is remarkable for its almost infinitesimal subdivision of landed property. In 1867 there were no less than 502 estates borne on its rent-roll, of which 184 paid a rent of less than 2s. a year

to Government. The 28th June is the last day of payment fixed for all estates paying an annual rental of less than £1; and it is no uncommon thing for a pice, or even a pie (the twelfth part of an *ánd* = half a farthing), to be paid in as the balance of the smaller estates. It is not surprising that a Fiscal Division which comprises so many petty landholders should be involved in endless litigation. So serious was this difficulty, that the whole Fiscal Division was attached by the Civil Court in May 1815, and only released in June 1864. Quarrels among the several proprietors soon broke out again, and the Collector, in 1867, reported that a second attachment by the Civil Court was only a matter of time. This Fiscal Division, lying as it does in some of the most marshy lands of the District, is very much out of cultivation, and the Collector stated (in 1867) that the only hope for improvement was to take the first chance of arrears of revenue, and to bring it to the hammer. In the hands of a single wealthy and enterprising proprietor, Kotwálípárá, properly drained and embanked, might be converted into one of the most fertile tracts in the District.

THE DISTRICT LAND-TAX, the principal source of revenue, has increased from £89,566 in 1818 to £143,156 in 1871–72. In 1818 there were 4461 estates on the rent-roll of the District, held by 5088 registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total land revenue of £89,566, representing an average payment of £20, 2s. by each estate, or £17, 12s. by each individual proprietor or coparcener. In 1850 the number of separate estates was 4208, possessed by 5160 proprietors or coparceners, and yielding a total land-tax of £105,012, the average payment for each estate being £25, and by each proprietor or partner £20, 8s. In 1870–72 there were 4729 estates, held by 5960 proprietors, who were assessed at a total land revenue of £143,156, 16s., representing an average payment of £30, 5s. by each estate, and £24 by each proprietor. These averages fairly represent the state of landed property in the District.

MODE OF COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT REVENUE.—The following statement of Government procedure for realisation of rent is extracted from Mr Collector Sutherland's Report on Bákarganj, printed at page 161 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division":—"The revenue on account of estates of Decennial Settlement, and of those settled in perpetuity, is realised on the

latest days of payment, which are 12th January, 28th March, 28th June, and 28th September. If the revenue of any estate is not paid on or before the latest day of payment, it is realised by the sale of the estate; if the sale proceeds do not entirely meet the dues of Government, the balance may be recovered by the sale of the defaulter's other property, movable as well as immovable. This, however, is never necessary in the case of permanently-settled estates. The revenue on account of permanently-settled estates in the Government Fiscal Division of Bozargomedpur and Darichar Mahal is paid according to instalments. If the revenue of any instalment falls into arrears, it is realised by issue of warrants on the defaulter, and by attachment and sale of his property. If the arrears are not paid in at the end of the year, the rights and interests of the defaulter in the estate are put up for sale under Regulation VIII. of 1835, and Act VII. of 1865. The revenues on account of temporarily-settled estates in Parganá Bozargomedpur and Darichar Mahal are also paid according to instalments. If the revenue of any instalment falls into arrears, it is realised by issue of warrants, and by attachment and sale of the defaulting farmer's property. The revenue from farmers of resumed *jágír* and Government-purchased estates is paid according to instalments. If the revenue of any instalment falls into arrears, it is realised from the deposit of the defaulter, and by the sale of the property of his security. If the Government dues are not wholly realised from the deposit and by the sale of the security's property, the balance is recovered by the sale of the movable and immovable property of the defaulter. The revenue from farmers of the Sundarban estates is realised according to instalments. If the revenue of any instalment falls into arrears, it is realised by the sale of the rights and interests of the defaulter under Act XI. of 1859. The revenue on account of estates under the Court of Wards is collected through the Manager-General. The revenue from attached estates is collected through the Manager-General within the latest days of payment. If the revenue is not paid within any of the latest days, through the negligence of the proprietor of any portion of an estate which is not under attachment, it is realised at the end of the year by the sale of the estate. This practice also applies to estates under partition (*batwárá*)."

THE LAND LAWS.—The Collector in 1867 reported that there

is scarcely a District in Bengal where Act X. of 1859 is so thoroughly worked as in Bákarganj. Since the passing of the Act, the number of rent-suits instituted in the courts has been so great as to lead to a special report being called for, dated 19th January 1867. The number, however, has fallen off somewhat of late years, as the following comparative statement will show. In 1861–62 the number of original suits instituted under the provisions of this law was no less than 12,576, besides 5104 miscellaneous applications; in 1862–63 there were 8931 original suits, and 7882 miscellaneous applications; in 1866–67 there were 7471 original suits, and 7836 miscellaneous applications; and in 1868 the numbers were 6669 and 8060 respectively. A very large proportion of these cases were *ex parte* decrees, an indication of an unhealthy state of feeling between landlord and tenant. The Collector, in his letter of January 1867, states that one cause of there being so many *ex parte* cases in his District is that it is found in some instances cheaper to collect rents through the Courts than by means of the usual staff of Collectors. As an instance of this fact, he mentioned one of the wealthiest landlords, who declared that he found it cheaper to sue his tenants for rent, than to keep up an expensive collecting establishment. This is certainly a use to which it was never intended that the Act should be applied, and it is gratifying to know that these cases were gradually decreasing in number.

Protection to Person and Property has steadily increased of late years. In 1818, the year following that in which Bákarganj was formed into a separate District, there was but one Magisterial and three Revenue and Civil Courts in the whole District; in 1850 the number of Magisterial Courts had increased to three, and the Revenue and Civil Courts to ten in number; in 1862 the numbers were ten and eighteen; and in 1869, eight and fifteen respectively. The number of covenanted English officers at work throughout the year was three in 1818 and four in 1869.

Police.—In 1818, the machinery for protecting the District consisted of 182 foot constables, and 48 officers, the cost of officering the force from the rank of Head Constable upwards, amounting to £794. In 1860 there were 183 foot constables, and 46 officers, the cost of the latter amounting to £2154. At the present day, for police purposes, the District is divided into eighteen police circles, with twelve outpost stations. The police force consists of the Regular

District Police, a Village Watch, and a small Municipal force for the town of Barisál. At the close of 1871, the Regular Police consisted of the following strength:—3 European officers, receiving a total salary of £1620 per annum; 102 subordinate officers, of whom three are Eurasians and the rest natives, maintained at a total cost of £4078, or an average annual pay of £39, 19s. 7d. each; and 478 native foot constables, maintained at a total cost of £3374, 8s., equal to an average annual pay of £7, 1s. 2d. a year for each man. Total Regular Force of all ranks, 583. The total cost of the Regular Police of all ranks, including travelling allowances, pay of office establishment, and contingencies, amounted to £11,186. The area of the District, as returned by the Surveyor-General in 1871, is 4939·13 square miles; and the population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 2,377,433 souls. According to this basis of calculation, there is one regular policeman to every 8·47 square miles of area, or one to every 4078 of the population, maintained at an average cost of £2, 5s. 3d. per square mile, or a fraction over one penny per head of the population. Attached to the Regular Police is a River Patrol, consisting of five boats, and manned by a crew of 35 men. The cost, which is included in the above, amounts to £312 per annum. The Village Watch, or rural police, is a force which in 1871 consisted of 5135 men, maintained at a cost of £18,486, paid by the landholders and villagers; the average pay of each village watchman being £3, 12s. a year, besides a small plot of ground rent free. According to the above calculations of area and population, there is one village watchman to every 9·6 square miles, or one to every 463 of the population. The cost of maintaining this force is £3, 14s. 10d. per square mile, or about 1¾d. per head of the population. Each village watchman has, on an average, 62 houses under his charge. The Municipal Police is a small force, consisting of 1 subordinate officer and 52 men, stationed at the towns of Barisál, Nalchití, Jhálakátí, and Daulat Khán. The cost of maintenance amounted in 1871 to £403, 14s., defrayed out of the municipal receipts. Including, therefore, the Regular Force, the Municipal Police, and the Village Watch, the police force of the District consists of a total of 5771 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £30,075. Compared with the area and population, there is therefore one police officer to every ·85 square miles, or one to every 412 of the population. The cost

of protecting person and property in Bákarganj, amounts to £6, 1s. 9d. per square mile of area, or a fraction over 3d. per head of the population. During the year 1870, the police conducted 426 cognisable cases, and obtained convictions in one half of them, or in 222 cases. In the following year, 1871, there was a very great increase in the number of cognisable cases, the number ascertained to have occurred being 2082, the percentage of final convictions to men brought to trial being 40·6. In serious cases, the percentage of detections to offences committed was very small. No fewer than 32 murders were reported as having been committed during the year, but detection only followed in 8 instances. Sixteen cases of murder occurred in the following year; and, with regard to this crime, Bákarganj enjoys the unenviable reputation of having more murders than any other District in Bengal. Out of 8 gang robberies, which were reported to have occurred in 1870, only 1 case was brought home. In 1871, no fewer than 28 cases of gang robbery are reported, of which conviction followed only in 1. The value of property stolen in 1870 is reported at £1167, of which only £273, or 23 per cent., was recovered.

CRIMINAL CLASSES.—I take the following paragraph from Mr J. H. Reilly's "Police Report":—"It is difficult to explain why the crime of murder is so common in Bákarganj. On asking the people, the only answer they give is that 'the men of the Bháti Des (tidal country) are very passionate.' The people are quite right that the men in the southern portion of Bákarganj are prone to violent and sudden outbursts of passion. I attribute this disposition to freedom from all wholesome social restraints, and to the feeling of independence in having money at their command, which has a tendency to make these men domineering. In the older Districts it is well known that the inhabitants congregate together for mutual protection against robbers, and live in communities. The country is divided into clusters of houses forming villages, with the cultivated land lying round each village. The men and women associate with each other, and are acquainted with each other's affairs. But in Bákarganj the features of the country are very different, and there are, strictly speaking, no villages. Each man builds his homestead on his own land, generally on the highest spot appertaining to his holding, without any reference to his neighbours. The consequence is, that the homesteads are far

apart from each other, with dense plantations of cocoa-nut and betel-nut surrounding each homestead. Families, for this reason, have little communication with each other, and owing to the numerous *kháls* or watercourses, and the swampy nature of the country, neighbourly visits are seldom exchanged between them. I believe this isolation of families has a great effect upon the character of the people. In the older Districts, owing to the social relationships subsisting between families, domestic disputes are settled either by neighbours or by a *Panchâyet* of the villagers, and a man finds himself restrained in his temper and manners by the fact that the eyes of his neighbours are upon him; if he beats his wife, it is known at once in the village, and forms the gossip of his friends. But in Bákarganj, owing to the isolation of families, the owner of the homestead is sole arbiter and ruler, independent of every social restraint. If a man of bad temper, he often develops into a despot or domestic tyrant. This will explain how a man of this lordly disposition, whose pride has been fostered by wifely homage, when returning home after a hard day's ploughing, and finding his rice uncooked or cold, seizes a club or a knife, and either batters or hacks his wife to death. It is crimes of this class that are so common in the District—hasty and violent ebullitions of temper, leading to sudden murder. I believe the household habits of the people, caused by the secluded lives they lead, will account in a great measure for the social and domestic murders so prevalent in the District. The prevention of murder among such a race is not the work of the police officer; it is the work of the schoolmaster and teacher, who by inculcating a purer religion and a higher standard of humanity, may civilise these savages, and soften their hearts and manners; until that is effected, murder will continue to be common in the District." Gang robberies are also of very frequent occurrence in Bákarganj. This crime is generally committed by gangs of professional robbers, who are known to each other, and who enjoy great facilities for crime from the only practicable mode of communication in this District, viz., by boats. Nothing but an efficient river police will be able to cope thoroughly with the organised river robberies, which are common. The numerous subdivisions of land-tenure give constant occasion for riots and affrays. In a District like Bákarganj, where land-tenures are so complicated, and title to property so contested, it is not to be wondered at that riots should take place. A very large number

of cases are instituted for enticing away married women. There is no offence of more constant occurrence in the District than this, a circumstance which may be explained in various ways. Early marriages, domestic quarrels arising out of the peculiar constitution of the Musalmán household, pecuniary temptations, strong passion and love of intrigue, combine to make breaches of the marriage law of very common occurrence. In this class of offences Musalmáns are almost always implicated, and such cases are for the most part unknown amongst the Hindus, except those of the very lowest castes.

The Bediyás are a class of professional thieves. In Bákarganj and other Districts of Eastern Bengal, these people live in boats, wandering from village to village at fair times, or to the different bázárs. These people are thus described in the Police Report for 1871:—"They are expert pickpockets and notorious gamblers. Their boats are of one uniform pattern, resembling an egg in shape. They are rapidly embracing Muhammadanism, with a firm determination not to live on shore. There is a well understood rule with them that at every encampment the men and women must be on board their boats before the jackal's howl is heard in the evening; any member absenting himself at this time, more especially a female, is instantly put out of caste. Beyond their extreme expertness in pilfering they are comparatively harmless."

Jail Statistics.—In 1857–58, the total number of prisoners admitted into the District Jail as well as the Subdivisional lock-ups was 662. The number discharged during the year included 40 transferred, 613 released, and 6 escaped, and 27 deaths: total, 686. The ratio of admissions into hospital amounted to 110·17 of the mean jail population, the proportion of deaths being 5·84 per cent. of the mean jail population. In 1860–61, the total number of prisoners received in the jail and lock-up amounted to 1134; the discharges were as under:—transferred, 378; released, 839; escaped, 5; died, 64; executed, 3: total, 1289. The total admissions into hospital were 124·58 per cent., and the deaths 15·27 per cent. of the mean jail population. In 1870, the total number of prisoners received in the jail and lock-ups amounted to 1572. The average daily number of prisoners in jail during the year was 393, or one criminal always in jail to every 6048 of the population. The prisoners discharged during the year were as follows:—transferred, 23; released, 1549; escaped, 8; died, 36; executed, 1;

total, 1617. The total admissions into hospital were 104·83 per cent., and the deaths 9·16 per cent. of the average jail population. The average term of residence of each prisoner in jail was 168 days. More than half the number of prisoners who were received into the jail were in a bad state of health on admission. The diseases from which they chiefly suffered were intermittent fever, diarrhœa, splenetis, rheumatism, dyspepsia, and colic. Notwithstanding this, the medical officer reports that the jail was healthy; but it is clear that the healthiness can only be taken in a comparative sense. The death-rate was lower in 1870 by 2·07 per cent. than in 1869, and the sickness rate for 1870 and the preceding five years was respectively 104 and 146 per cent. of the average number of prisoners in jail.

The average gross cost of maintenance of prisoners, excluding the cost of the jail police guards, amounted to £4, 9s. 9d. per head in 1857–58, and to £4, 14s. 5d. per head in 1860–61. In 1870, the cost per head amounted to £4, 10s. 5½d., exclusive of £1, 6s. 3d. per head for the cost of the police guard, making a total cost of £5, 16s. 8½d. per head to Government. No materials exist showing the separate cost of the police jail guard prior to 1870. The gross cost of the jail and lock-ups, including the prison guard, amounted in 1870 to £1932, 3s. 9d.

A certain proportion of the cost of jail maintenance, however, is defrayed by the prisoners' own labour. Prison manufactures have been carried on in Bákarganj jail for a period of twenty-eight years. In 1857–58, the gross receipts from prison labour amounted to £165, 7s. 5d., and the charges to £54, 18s. 4d., leaving a profit of £110, 9s. 1d., the average earning of each prisoner engaged in manufactures being £1, 4s. 3d. An 1860–61, the receipts from jail manufacture amounted to £367, 2s. 9d., and the charges to £177, 18s. 6d., leaving a profit of £189, 4s. 3d., the average earning of each prisoner engaged on manufactures being £1, 9s. 4d. In 1870, the total receipts from articles of jail produce amounted to £685, 15s., and the expenditure to £505, 9s. 9d., leaving a profit of £180, 5s. 3d., the average earning of each prisoner employed in manufactures being £2, 3s. 5d. Deducting the profits derived from prison labour from the gross cost of the jail in 1870, there remains a net charge to Government of £1751, 18s. 6d. for guarding and maintaining the prisoners of the District. The number of prisoners employed on remunerative prison labour in 1870 was 83; viz., 7 in

gardening, 16 in manufacturing cloth, 11 in bamboo rattan or reed work, 36 in manufacturing bricks and tiles, 8 in flour-grinding, 2 as carpenters, and 3 as bakers.

DISTRICT EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.—As may be expected in a society almost wholly composed of petty husbandmen, of whom the majority are Muhammadans of the most bigoted tenets, education in Bákarganj is in a backward state. The Collector of the District states that the chief reason of this seems to be the want of an educated and comfortable middle class. Except at the Civil Station of Barisál, the community consists of a few traders and land agents, and an undistinguished crowd of petty landholders, peasants, and fishermen. These men are all intent on earning their daily rice, and as they do not see how education will help either them or their sons towards this, they care nothing about it. Almost as soon as a boy can walk alone, he is employed to tend his father's cattle: and when he is a little older, he rows in the boat, or climbs the *Supári* trees to gather the betel-nuts, &c. Even the little girls are made use of, and may be seen staggering home from the river bank under the weight of water-pots which are almost as big as themselves. The Collector adds, "It is vain to expect that education will flourish in such households, even if it were brought close to their doors, and were made free of cost. Far less will it succeed when it has to be sought in a village some five or six miles off, and on the other side of half a dozen unbridged rivers, and has moreover to be paid for." The central portion of the District, however, is an exception to these remarks. Nearly the whole of the Government and Aided Schools are contained in the small triangular tract situated between the Barisál, Ariál Khán, and Swarúpkátí rivers. This central oasis is rich in schools, and the Inspector reports it as one of the most forward educational tracts of East Bengal, both in the number of boys at school, and in the number of minor and vernacular scholarships which Barisál carries off. Barisál, too, supplies an unusually large number of pupils to the medical profession. The Barisál Government School is the largest in Eastern Bengal, and financially the most successful; the cost to Government in 1871 for its 355 pupils being only £31, 12s. In 1870, the cost to Government for the school, which then contained 347 pupils, amounted to £146, 7s. 4d.

The table opposite exhibits the number of State schools, the

[*Sentence continued on page* 236.]

RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN BÁKARGANJ DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1856–57, 1860–61, AND 1870–71.

Classification of Schools.	Number of Schools.			Number of Pupils.																	
				Hindus.			Muhammadans.			Others.			Total.			Cost to Government.			Fees and Local Subscriptions.			Total Cost.		
	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.
																£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. Government English School, .	1	1	1	220	283	313	23	24	28	2	1	6	245	308	347	56 4 10	251 17 4	146 7 4	371 6 9	305 14 3	730 10 7	427 11 7	557 11 7	876 17 11
2. Government Vernacular Schools,	...	...	3	...	...	40	...	...	61	...	...	...	...	...	101	...	...	71 1 4	...	...	3 14 10	...	...	74 16 2
3. Aided English Schools, . .	3	*2	25	200	Not given.	1146	11	Not given.	54	...	...	...	211	81	1200	50 9 0	Not given.	477 15 6	98 19 2	Not given.	954 18 0	150 8 11	Not given.	1492 5 7
4. Aided Vernacular Schools, . .	1	....	32	6	...	1306	20	...	100	...	...	4	26	...	1410	9 0 0	...	428 5 0	9 6 0	...	474 15 0	17 12 6	...	918 19 11
5. Aided Girls' Schools, . .	...	...	6	...	...	58	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	58	...	...	17 16 0	...	...	30 12 0	...	...	53 8 0
Total, . .	5	3	67	426	283	2863	54	24	243	2	1	10	482	389	3116	115 13 10	251 17 4	1141 5 2	479 11 11	305 14 3	2194 10 5	595 13 0	557 11 7	3416 7 7

* Details not given, only number of Schools and total number of Schools; no return of Expenditure.

[Sentence continued from page 234.]

number and creed of the pupils attending them, with the proportion of the cost defrayed by Government to that derived from school fees, subscriptions, and other local sources, for the years 1856–57, 1860–61, and 1870–71. It will be seen that the number of Government and Aided Schools has risen from 5 in 1856–57 to 67 in 1870–71, and the pupils from 482 to 3116 within the same period. The cost of education to Government has increased from £115, 13s. 10d. in 1856–57, to £1141, 5s. 2d. in 1870–71, while that derived from schooling fees, local subscriptions, &c., has increased in the same period from £479, 11s. 11d. to £2194, 10s. 5d. It is to be regretted that the Muhammadans, although forming no less than 64·8 per cent. of the total population, hold themselves distinctly aloof from our system of education. Only 243 Muhammadans attended the Government or Aided Schools of Bákarganj in 1870, while the number of Hindu pupils amounted to 2863. The figures contained in the foregoing table have been compiled from the Reports of the Director of Public Instruction for the years 1856–57, 1860–61, and 1870–71.

It must be remembered that the foregoing are only the Government and Aided Schools. Nine other private schools, principally conducted by missionary enterprise, are inspected by the Educational Department. These nine schools are attended by a total of 359 pupils. The total number of schools under inspection by the Education Department in 1872, was 87. There are also a considerable number of unaided village schools, which are not inspected by the Department, and regarding which no information can be given.

Postal Statistics.—The following table, showing the number of service and private letters, newspapers, books, &c., received at and despatched from the Bákarganj post-office, together with the receipts and expenditure for the years 1861–62, 1865–66, and 1870–71, illustrates the extent to which the public use the post-office. The receipts and expenditure have increased with equal ratio, both having trebled within the last ten years. The following are the figures:—

STATEMENT OF LETTERS, NEWSPAPERS, &c., RECEIVED AT AND DESPATCHED FROM THE BÁKARGANJ POST-OFFICE, WITH POSTAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEARS 1861-62, 1865-66, AND 1870-71.

	1861-62.	1865-66.	1870-71.
Service letters received,	16,285	13,744	... *
Private letters received,	51,618	61,561	...
Total letters received,	67,903	75,305	173,803
Service newspapers received,	706	507	...
Private newspapers received,	5993	7359	...
Total newspapers received,	6699	7866	15,177
Service parcels received,	1994	1268	...
Private parcels received,	308	252	...
Total parcels received,	2302	1520	6149
Books received,	869	1143	2477
Service letters despatched,	8356	10,204	... †
Private letters despatched,	48,934	66,168	...
Total letters despatched,	57,290	76,372	...
Service newspapers despatched,	*nil.*	*nil.*	...
Private newspapers despatched,	503	1072	...
Total parcels despatched,	645	1265	...
Books despatched,	86	152	...
Total post-office receipts,	£642 5 7	£1067 15 7	£1803 8 0
Total post-office charges,	399 8 11	548 6 9	1200 13 0

It will be observed that the total number of letters has nearly trebled during the ten years, and more than doubled during the last five of them. A similar progress appears in the total of newspapers received. In both cases the progress was slow at first, but very rapid during the subsequent years.

In the year 1866-67, the system of service stamps for all official communications and papers was introduced, and in 1870-71, the sale of these stamps amounted to £88, 12s. 4d.

* Service and private letters not shown separately, as all pay postage now.

† No return received of number of letters, newspapers, or books despatched during 1870-71.

Fiscal Divisions.—Materials do not exist showing the number of villages in former times, but in 1870 their number was estimated at 3056, containing, according to the rough census made at the time of the Revenue Survey, an average population of 272 souls each. The results of the Census of 1872 showed 4269 villages, containing an average population of 557 souls each. The Collector in 1871 returned the towns containing an estimated population of upwards of 2000 souls at nine in number, as follow:—Barisál, Nalchití, Jhálakátí or Maháráj ganj, Sáhibganj, Mádárípur, Kaliá Hát, Gangápur, Daulat Khán in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur, and Khosnadí. The Census Report, however, disclosed no less than 137 towns or villages containing a population of upwards of 2000 souls. The Fiscal Divisions are fifty-four in number, and the following list, showing the area of each, number of estates it contains, amount of land revenue it pays, population, and the court to which it is subject, is compiled from the Board of Revenue's *Parganá* statistics of area, population, etc.

(1.) Abdullápur, area not known; comprises 3 estates; pays a Government land revenue of £356, 8s.; population not known; subject to the jurisdiction of the Subordinate Judge's Court at Daulat Khán in the island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur.

(2.) Ambarpur, area 2 acres; 1 estate; land revenue, 2s.; population, 25; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(3.) Amírábád, area 40,457 acres, or 63·21 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £33, 12s.; population, 200; within the jurisdiction of the Subdivisional Court of Mádárípur.

(4.) Aurangpur, area 57,884 acres, or 90·44 square miles; 46 estates; land revenue, £4596, 6s.; population, 40,000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Patuákhálí.

(5.) Azímpur Tappá, area 16,178 acres, or 25·27 square miles; 47 estates; land revenue, £1083, 18s.; population, 2000; within the jurisdiction of the Mádárípur Court.

(6.) Bahádurpur Tappá, area 6321 acres, or 9·87 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £498; population, 6000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Barisál and Mádárípur.

(7.) Baikunthpur, area not known; 26 estates; land revenue, £23, 4s.; population not known; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(8.) Bángrorá, area 77,046 acres, or 120·38 square miles; 949

estates; land revenue, £2128, 6s.; population, 50,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Mádárípur and Pirozpur.

(9.) BIKRAMPUR, area 148 acres, or ·23 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £3, 8s.; population, 40; within the jurisdiction of the Mádárípur Court.

(10.) BÍRMOHAN, area 25,224 acres, or 39·41 square miles; 285 estates; land revenue, £256, 8s.; population, 10,000; within the jurisdiction of the Mádárípur Court.

(11.) BÍRMOHAN TAPPÁ, area 18,156 acres, or 28·37 square miles; 149 estates; land revenue, £425, 16s.; population, 8000; within the jurisdiction of the Mádárípur Court.

(12.) BOZARGOMEDPUR, area 287,971 acres, or 449·95 square miles; 405 estates; land revenue, £35,767, 8s.; population, 140,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Barisál, Patuákhálí, and Pirozpur.

(13.) CHANDRADWÍP, area 303,202 acres, or 473·75 square miles; 133 estates; land revenue, £20,195, 4s.; population, 150,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Mádárípur, Barisál, and Daulat Khán.

(14.) DAKSHÍN SHÁHBÁZPUR, area 216,460 acres, or 338·21 square miles; 27 estates; land revenue, £7520, 8s.; population, 50,000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(15.) DURDANÁ KHÁNAM, area 484 acres, or ·75 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £11, 18s.; population, 160; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Patuákhálí.

(16.) DURGÁPUR, area 2472 acres, or 3·86 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £8, 10s.; population, 150; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(17.) FATHIJANGPUR, area 22,981 acres, or 35·90 square miles; 110 estates; land revenue, £363, 2s.; population, 1000; within the jurisdiction of the Mádárípur Court.

(18.) GIRD BANDAR, area 165 acres, or ·25 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £5, 6s.; population, 2000; within the jurisdiction of the Barisál Court.

(19.) HABÍBPUR, area 10,235 acres, or 15·99 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £87, 18s.; population, 6000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Pirozpur and Mádárípur.

(20.) HAVILÍ SALÍMÁBÁD TAPPÁ, area 22,827 acres, or 35·66 square miles; 13 estates; land revenue, £1447, 16s.; population, 20,000; within the jurisdiction of the Barisál Court.

(21.) HAVILÍ TAPPÁ, area 3083 acres, or 4·81 square miles; 7 estates; land revenue, £112, 10s.; population, 5000; within the jurisdiction of the Barisál Court.

(22.) ISLAND, area 60,142 acres, or 93·97 square miles; 78 estates; land revenue, £3999, 6s.; population, 8000. Court not mentioned.

(23.) IDALPUR, area 155,387 acres, or 242·79 square miles; 502 estates; land revenue, £7977, 18s.; population, 104,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Mádárípur and Daulat Khán.

(24.) IDRAKPUR, area 8667 acres, or 13·54 square miles; 63 estates; land revenue, £569, 10s.; population, 3000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Mádárípur and Patuákhálí.

(25.) ISWAR DATTA, area 5717 acres, or 8·93 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £442; population, 157; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Pirozpur.

(26.) JALÁLPUR, area 5542 acres, or 8·66 square milès; 5 estates; land revenue, £848, 10s.; population, 3000; within the jusisdictlon of the Court at Mádárípur.

(27.) JAHÁNPUR, area 5987 acres, or 9·35 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £85, 8s.; population, 1000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Mádárípur.

(28.) KÁDIRÁBÁD TAPPÁ, area 2164 acres, or 3·38 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £156, 4s.; population, 1000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Mádárípur.

(29.) KALMIR CHAR TARAF, area 1828 acres, or 2·85 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £184, 14s.; population, 2500; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Patuákhálí.

(30.) KÁSIMNAGAR, area 4691 acres, or 7·33 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £163, 8s.; population, 1000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Patuákhálí.

(31.) KÁSIMPUR SILÁPATI, area 3954 acres, or 6·17 square miles; 99 estates; land revenue, £812, 14s.; population, 5000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Mádárípur.

(32.) KHÁNJÁ BAHÁDURNAGAR, area 10,267 acres, or 16·04 square miles; 65 estates; land revenue, £747, 2s.; population, 5000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Patuákhálí.

(33.) KOTWÁLÍPÁRÁ, area 54,098 acres, or 84·52 square miles; 502 estates; land revenue, £244, 18s.; population, 25,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Pirozpur and Mádárípur.

(34.) LAKSHMIRDIA TAPPÁ, area 15,717 acres, or 24·55 square

miles; 27 estates; land revenue, £126, 8s.; population, 500; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(35.) MÁDÁRÍPUR, area 7836 acres, or 12·24 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £82, 10s.; population, 2000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Mádárípur.

(36.) MAIJARDÍ, area 710 acres, or 1·11 square miles; 30 estates; land revenue, £77, 4s.; population, 500; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(37.) MURSHID KOTWÁLI JÁGÍR, area 138 acres, or ·21 square miles; 42 estates; land revenue, £82, 8s.; population, 2000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Mádárípur.

(38.) NÁZÍRPUR TAPPÁ, area 95,983 acres, or 149·97 square miles; 17 estates; land revenue, £4472, 10s.; population, 20,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Barisál, Pirozpur, Mádárípur, and Daulat Khán.

(39.) RÁJNAGAR, area 300 acres, or ·47 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, £85, 4s.; population, 100; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(40.) RÁJ RÁJESWARPUR, area 12,332 acres, or 19·27 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £371, 6s.; population, 100; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Pirozpur.

(41.) RÁMNAGAR, area 7662 acres, or 11·97 square miles; 18 estates; land revenue, £874, 16s.; population, 2500; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Mádárípur.

(42.) RÁMPUR, area not known, 1 estate; land revenue, £2, 12s.; population not known; Court at Daulat Khán.

(43.) RASÚLPUR, area 946 acres, or 1·47 square miles; 47 estates; land revenue, £98, 8s.; population, 2700; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Patuákhálí.

(44.) RATANDÍ KÁLIKÁPUR, area 37,468 acres, or 58·54 square miles; 18 estates; land revenue, £3672, 4s.; population, 13,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Barisál, Pirozpur, and Daulat Khán.

(45.) SALÍMÁBÁD, area 244,065 acres, or 381·35 square miles; 74 estates; land revenue, £12,230, 2s.; population, 101,903; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Barisál, &c.

(46.) SAYYIDPUR, area 64,855 acres, or 101·33 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £10,763, 18s.; population, 55,000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Pirozpur.

(47.) SHAFÍPUR KÁLÁ TAPPÁ, area 2048 acres, or 3·20 square miles; 86 estates; land revenue, £115, 10s.; population, 1400; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Mádárípur.

(48.) SHÁHZÁDPUR, area 13,407 acres, or 20·95 square miles; 37 estates; land revenue, £787, 16s.; population, 5000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Barisál.

(49.) SHÁISTÁBÁD, area 10,770 acres, or 15·82 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £203, 6s.; population, 5000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Barisál.

(50.) SHÁISTANAGAR, area 17,981 acres, or 28·09 square miles; 174 estates; land revenue, £1760, 14s.; population, 10,000; within the jurisdiction of the Courts at Barisál and Patuákhálí.

(51.) SRÍRÁMPUR, area 8167 acres, or 12·76 square miles; 137 estates; land revenue, £547, 6s.; population, 5000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

(52.) SULTÁNÁBÁD TAPPÁ, area 54,085 acres, or 84·50 square miles; 18 estates; land revenue, £2769, 18s.; population, 25,000; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Patuákhálí.

(53.) TELIHÁTÍ, area not known; 12 estates; land revenue, £7, 16s.; population not known; Court at Daulat Khán.

(54.) UTTAR SHÁHBÁZPUR, area 17,690 acres, or 27·64 square miles; 324 estates; land revenue, £1767, 16s.; population, 7500; within the jurisdiction of the Court at Daulat Khán.

TOTAL—area, 2,041,900 acres, or 3190·47 square miles; land revenue, £132,056, 12s.; population, 908,435 souls.

The above figures must be accepted with some degree of caution, as they are based upon the returns of a Survey, which was conducted some years ago. The estimates of population are invariably wrong, and must be doubled all round to make them approximate to anything like correctness. According to this list, there are six Fiscal Divisions, each with an area under one square mile, thirteen between one and ten square miles, seventeen between ten and fifty square miles, six between fifty and a hundred square miles, and eight above a hundred square miles. The above list of Fiscal Divisions does not, however, agree, either in names or numbers, with a return which has recently been prepared for me by the Collector of the District. This list gives the names of fifty-three Fiscal Divisions as follow:—(1) Abdullápur; (2) Alínagar Tappá; (3) Amírábád; (4) Amrápur; (5) Aurangpur;

(6) Azímpur Tappá; (7) Bahádurpur Tappá; (8) Baikunthpur; (9) Bángrorá; (10) Bikrampur; (11) Bírmohan; (12) Bírmohan Tappá; (13) Bozargomedpur; (14) Chandradwip; (15) Dakshín Sháhbázpur; (16) Durdaná Khánam; (17) Durgápur; (18) Fathijangpur; (19) Gird Bandar; (20) Gopálpur; (21) Habíbpur; (22) Havílí Salímábád; (23) Havílí; (24) Idalpur; (25) Idrakpur; (26) Jajirá; (27) Jalálpur; (28) Jahánpur; (29) Kadirábád Tappá; (30) Kasimnagar; (31) Kásimpur Silápatí; (32) Khánjá Bahádurnagar; (33) Kotwálípárá; (34) Krishnadebpur Tappá; (35) Lakshmírdiá Tappá; (36) Mádárípur; (37) Maijardí; (38) Murshid Kotwálí Jágír; (39) Názírpur Tappá; (40) Rájnagar; (41) Ráj Rájeswarpur; (42) Rámnagar; (43) Rasúlpur; (44) Ratandí Kálíkápur; (45) Salímábád; (46) Sayyidpur; (47) Shafípur Kálá; (48) Sháhzádpur; (49) Sháistábád; (50) Sháistánagar; (51) Srírámpur; (52) Sultánábád Tappá; and (53) Uttar Sháhbázpur.

Subdivisional Administration.—Bákarganj District is distributed into five Subdivisions. The principal, or headquarters, Subdivision of Barisál, which was established in May 1801, contained in 1870-71 eight Magisterial and Revenue Courts, and a total police force of 385 officers and men, besides 2622 village watchmen. The total cost of the subdivisional headquarters administration, including magisterial and revenue courts and police, amounted to £12,435. The Barisál headquarters comprise the five police circles (*thánás*) of Barisál, Jhálakátí, Nalchití, Bákarganj, and Mehndíganj. It contains an area of 964 square miles, 1232 villages or towns, 89,230 houses, and a total population of 711,180, of whom 360,800 are males and 350,380 females; proportion of males to total population, .50·7 per cent. The Muhammadans number 460,615, or 64·8 per cent.; the proportion of Musálmaṇ males to the total Muhammadan population being 50·9 per cent. The Hindus number 249,085, or 35 per cent.; the proportion of males to the total Hindu population being 50·4 per cent. The Buddhists only number 45 males. The Christians number 688 males and 695 females; total, 1383, or ·2 per cent. of the population; proportion of males to total Christian population, 49·1 per cent. Other denominations number only 52. Average density of population per square mile, 738; average number of houses per square mile, 93; average number of persons per house, 8.

The island of Dakshín Sháhbázpur was a Subdivision of Bákarganj

from the time when Bákarganj was erected into a separate District, up to 1822, when the island was separated and annexed to Noákhálí, and continued attached to that District till 1869. In this year it was re-transferred to Bákarganj, in accordance with a petition from the inhabitants of the island, who found the courts of Bákarganj nearer and readier of access than those of Noákhálí. In 1870–71 it contained 1 court, a regular police force of 75 officers and men, and a force of 482 village watchmen. The total cost of administering the Subdivision, including court, police, and village watch, amounted to £1525. Dakshín Sháhbázpur was created a separate administrative Subdivision in April 1845, when it formed part of Noákhálí District.

It comprises the two police circles (*thánás*) of Daulat Khán and Dhaniá Maniá, and contains, according to the Census of 1872, an area of 818 square miles, 345 villages, 23,715 houses, and a total population of 221,037, viz., 115,993 males and 105,044 females; proportion of males to total population, 52·5 per cent. The Muhammadans number 182,918, or 82·8 per cent. of the whole population of the Subdivision, the proportion of males to the Musalmán population being 51·9 per cent. The Hindus number 38,094, or 17·2 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Hindu males to total Hindu population, 55·2 per cent. There are no Buddhists, and only one Christian is returned in the Subdivision, the number of people of other denominations being 24. Average density of population per square mile, 270; average number of persons per village, 640; average number of houses per square mile, 29; average number of persons per house, 9·3.

The Subdivision of Mádárípur, in the northern part of the District, was created on the 17th May 1854. At the end of 1870–71 it contained 1 court, a regular police force of 72 officers and men, and a village watch of 834 men. The total cost of the administration of the Subdivision, including court, police, and village police, amounted to £1662. It comprises the four police circles of Gaurnadí, Kotwálípárá, Mádárípur, and Mulfatganj, and contains, according to the Census of 1872, an area of 1070 square miles, 1334 villages, 81,144 houses, and a total population of 663,043 souls; namely, 325,005 males and 338,038 females; proportion of males to total population, 49 per cent. The Muhammadans number 360,085, or 54·3 per cent. of the Subdivisional population, the

proportion of Muhammadan males to the total Muhammadan population being 50·1 per cent. The Hindus number 299,540, or 45·2 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Hindu males to total Hindu population, 47·7 per cent. Buddhists, *nil.*; Christians, 3375, or ·5 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Christian males to total Christian population, 50·1 per cent. Other denominations only number 43. Average density of population, 620 per square mile; average number of inhabitants per village, 497; average number of houses per square mile, 76; average number of inmates per house, 8·2.

The Pirozpur Subdivision, in the east of Bákarganj, was created on the 28th October 1859. It contained in 1870–71, 1 Court, a regular police force of the strength of 69 officers and men, and a village watch of 755 men. The separate cost of administration for the Subdivision amounted to £1530. It comprises the three police circles of Kewárí, Pirozpur, and Mathbárí, and contains, according to the Census of 1872, an area of 626 square miles, 639 villages, 79,010 houses, and a total population of 363,426 souls—viz., 182,123 males, and 181,303 females; proportion of males to total population, 50·1 per cent. The Muhammadans number 199,104, or 54·8 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Muhammadan males to the total Muhammadan population, 50·4. The Hindus number 164,277, or 45·2 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Hindu males to total Hindu population, 49·8 per cent. Buddhists, *nil;* Christians, 31; and other denominations, 14. The average density of population is 581 per square mile; average number of inhabitants per village, 569; average number of houses per square mile, 126; average number of inmates per house, 4·6. The two Subdivisions of Mádárípur and Pirozpur were originally established with the object of suppressing river robberies, for which the Kachuá river was in former times notorious. The whole extent of country along this river was formerly unprotected, and hence great facilities were afforded to gangs of water-thieves. The establishment first of Pirozpur, and afterwards of Bágherhát Subdivision in the neighbouring District of Jessor, has had a very good effect in checking river robberies, and boats now travel up and down the Baleswar and Kachuá with much greater safety than they ever did before.

A new Subdivision, with its headquarters at Patuákhálí or Lankátí, was constituted on the 27th March 1867, with the intention

of bringing the distant southern tracts of the District within more easy access and control. I have no information as to the details of protection to person or property in this Subdivision, or its separate cost of administration. It comprises the four police circles of Bauphal, Mirzáganj, Gulsákhálí, and Khálsákhálí, and contains, according to the Census of 1872, an area of 1457 square miles, 719 villages, 48,558 houses, and a total population of 418,747 souls—viz., 220,316 males, and 198,431 females; proportion of males to total population, 52·6 per cent. The Muhammadans number 338,243, or 80·8 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Muhammadan males to total Muhammadan population, 52 per cent. The Hindus number 76,397, and form 18·2 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Hindu males to total Hindu population, 55·5 per cent. Nearly all the Buddhists of the District are found in this southern Subdivision, where they number 4004, or 1 per cent. of the Subdivisional population; proportion of Buddhist males to total Buddhists, 52·3 per cent. The Christians number 62, and other denominations 41. Average density of population, 287 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 582; average number of houses per square mile, 33; average number of inmates per house, 8·6. Mr Collector Sutherland, in his Report on the District, at page 146 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," states that from the rapid advance of cultivation and settlement of the Sundarbans, there can be no doubt that in the course of a few years another separate jurisdiction will have to be created in the southern tracts of Bákarganj and the Sundarbans.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Bákarganj is said to be one of the healthiest in Eastern Bengal, owing to the strong south-west monsoon, which comes up fresh from the Bay of Bengal, and keeps the atmosphere cool; although the heavy rainfall and consequent humidity of the atmosphere, combined with the use of bad water, act as sources of disease. The average annual temperature is from 78° minimum to 85° maximum. The range of the thermometer is from 62° to 98°. In 1871 the average temperature in the cold weather was 67°·8, and in the hot weather 78°·8. The rainfall in 1871 is returned at 96·24 inches at the Civil Station of Barisál, and at 112·96 inches at Daulat Khán.

CONSERVANCY.—The water-supply of the District is very bad. Most of the people use tank-water for drinking and cooking, and

these reservoirs, instead of being carefully kept clean, are used for washing, and for a variety of other purposes, and always contain a quantity of rank vegetation. No system is enforced for keeping the tanks free from the vilest pollutions, nor is there any attempt to regulate the public latrines, or preserve cleanliness. In the town of Barisál the river scours out the drains once a fortnight at spring tides, when most of the offal and refuse is washed away. Some attempt at municipal conservancy was commenced in 1871, and it is hoped that a better system will gradually be introduced.

DISEASES.—The endemic diseases of Bákarganj are fevers of the intermittent, remittent, and continued types, which are all attributable to the extreme dampness and malarious nature of the District. Repeated attacks of fever generally terminate in organic complications of the spleen and liver. Cholera may be also classed among the endemic diseases, as it is always present. The cases increase in number in the hot season and at the beginning of the cold weather. The Civil Surgeon states, that as far as he can learn, there was no attempt at sanitation or drainage in any part of the District until 1870, when orders were issued to clear the low jungle from about the inhabited localities. Cholera occasionally assumes an epidemic character, spreading from village to village, and causing great panic. Small-pox also occasionally makes its appearance in an epidemic form, frequently caused from the system of inoculation, which is practised to a great extent in Bákarganj by the native medical practitioners or *kabirájs*. No epidemic fever has made its appearance in the District for several years past. Cattle disease has been very prevalent during the last few years, and has caused great damage. The natives call the disease *guti*, or cattle small-pox, but the Civil Surgeon is of opinion, judging from the cases brought before him, that the disease was of a type resembling typhus fever. The symptoms seemed to him to point to that disease, and were attended at times with organic complications. *Petichæ* also appear on the skin, which has probably been the cause of the disease being mistaken for cow-pox. The Civil Surgeon states that the probable cause of the cattle-epidemic is the want of attention to the cattle-sheds, which are never cleaned until the whole floor becomes a putrid mud. *Vide* Dacca District.

FAIRS AND RELIGIOUS GATHERINGS.—The five principal fairs in the District are held at the following places:—Lákhutía, about six

miles westward of the town; Bánarípárá, twenty miles west of Barisál; Kulsokátí, about twenty miles south-east of Barisál; Jhálakátí, about twelve miles south; and Pirozpur, the head-quarters of the Subdivision of the same name, about thirty-five miles south-east of Barisál. The three first-named fairs are held in the month of November, the fourth in October, and the fifth in March. The Civil Surgeon reports that none of them has, strictly speaking, any exclusive object of adoration, but are really gatherings for the purposes of amusement, and the interchange of commodities. The largest of these fairs are attended by from five to six thousand persons, and are occasionally visited by outbreaks of cholera, caused by the absence of any sanitary arrangements.

NATIVE PRACTITIONERS.—There are no really good *kabirájs* or native medical practitioners in Bákarganj. The best of them seem to classify all diseases as originating from one of three causes, or from a combination of them, viz., *bái*, or wind; *pitta*, or bile; and *kaph*, or phlegm. In cases of fever their treatment is generally a combination of the following drugs:—*Kát karanjá* (cæsalpinia bonduc), *bhánt* (clerodendron viscosum), *gulanchá* (coculus cordifolia), *khet-páprá* (Oldenlandia beflora), and *akúrkorá* (anthemis pyrethrum). In cases of dysentery or diarrhœa, they administer the following:—*Bel* (ægle marmelos), *kurchi* (Wrightia antidysenterica), *bháng* (cannabis indica), *muthá* (cyperus pertenius), *báblá* (acacia arabica), *ámlá* (emblica officinalis), *mádár* (calotropis gigantia). For coughs the following drugs are given:—*Pipul* (piper longnum), *ádá* (zinziber officinalis), *bábui tulsí* (ocymum basilicum), *bach* (zinziber zerumbit), *bákas* (adhatoda vasica). For the scientific names I trust to the Civil Surgeon. The more intelligent native practitioners have now begun to use drugs from other parts of India, and even from Europe. Many of them employ quinine largely in fevers.

CHARITABLE DISPENSARIES.—The medical charities of Bákarganj consist of a hospital and dispensary at Barisál town, a branch dispensary at Pirozpur, and another branch dispensary at Mádárípur. The Barisál dispensary was established in 1847, and is under the charge of a native Sub-Assistant Surgeon. It is a large masonry building, well raised and ventilated. The hospital consists of a long central ward, with two verandah-rooms for female patients, and a room for seeing out-patients and dispensing medicines. A sum of £400 has recently been presented by Khwájá Abdul Ganí, C.S.I., a wealthy landholder, for the purpose of building a female ward, which

will materially increase the usefulness of the institution. The total number of indoor patients treated in the Barisál Dispensary during 1871 was 244, of whom 160 were cured or partially relieved; 37 were either not improved or ceased to attend; 28 died; and 19 persons remained in the hospital receiving treatment at the end of the year. The ratio of deaths to patients treated was 11·47 per cent., the daily average number of patients during the year being 18·42. The total number of outdoor patients who received medical relief in 1871 was 4083, the average daily attendance being 56·19. The income of the dispensary during the year was £120 from Government on account of salaries, and £144, 18s. 2d. from private subscriptions and other local sources, making a total of £264, 18s. 2d.; besides £22, 17s. 7d., being the value of European medicines supplied by Government. The expenditure during the year amounted to £289, 13s. The Pirozpur branch dispensary was established in 1865, and is under the charge of a native doctor. The institution is much appreciated by the local poor, and during 1871, 674 outdoor patients were treated, the average daily attendance being 10·89. The total income during the year amounted to £16, 2s. 6d., wholly derived from local sources, Government only supplying the European medicines to the value of £1, 16s. 8d. The native doctor is attached to the lock-up, and gives his services to the dispensary gratuitously. The Mádárípur branch dispensary was established in 1869, but is not in a flourishing condition. The financial condition was said in 1871 to be in a hopeless state, the subscriptions having fallen into arrear, and much of them being irrecoverable. The total amount collected during 1871 was only £4, 14s.; and the Civil Surgeon in his report for that year strongly recommended Government to close the dispensary till such time as the people can appreciate its benefits. The total number of patients receiving outdoor treatment from it in 1871 was 208.

GEOLOGY OF BÁKARGANJ DISTRICT.—Bákarganj is a very typical part of the alluvial delta formed by the Ganges and Brahmaputra and their feeders. It exhibits an unbroken flat, traversed by countless streams and rivers twisted into a network of channels which are for ever changing their courses. The soil consists of fine silt or sandy mud, very easily acted on, and yielding readily to the rapid currents produced by the sudden rising and falling of the rivers. These floods are due both to the masses of water which the rivers bring down from the interior during the rains, and to the strong

tides driven up by prevailing winds from the south and south-west from the Bay of Bengal.

The eastern portion of the District, lying chiefly along the Meghná river, is the highest part of the surface, and is, for the most part, well raised above ordinary floods. The western and north-western side of the District lies much lower, and a vast portion of this tract is covered by marshes and swamps. The southern face of the District lies along the shores of the Bay of Bengal, and here the ground is steadily advancing to the south, the silt held in suspension by the numerous streams being deposited as they approach the resisting mass of sea-water. Sandbanks are thus formed, and gradually raised above the water level, and then rapidly become clothed with coarse grassy jungle and trees. This vegetation forms a natural filter for every flood that passes over them, thus causing the deposit of the finer slime or mud, which is richly fertilising. When the accretions have reached this stage, the people settle on them, and cultivation commences. The whole of Bákarganj District lies within the lower delta, that is to say, within the area in which the beds of the watercourses are below the level of the sea at high water. They are, therefore, all tidal. During the freshets of the rainy season, the water in many of these streams does not actually change its course with the change of tide, but flows constantly on its surface towards the sea, although it rises and falls as in the dry season. In this lower portion of the delta, as the streams deposit their detritus, the level of their beds, with that of the adjoining ground over which they periodically overflow, gradually rises, and will continue to do so until each stream flows along the ridge of an elevated bank which it has itself built up. Some larger flood than usual then occurs, the river bursts its banks, and assumes a new course along the lower ground adjoining, while its former channel, thus raised above the general level, is deserted. In this way the Ganges has probably, at successive periods, occupied as its main channel each of the ten or twelve courses still traceable between the Húgli and its present course. But, judging from the configuration of the ground, it seems probable that if the main body of the Ganges ever flowed down the Garai, or Baleswar, or Haringhátá (for the same channel bears these different names in various parts of its course), it retained that direction for a shorter period than in its other courses. It is quite probable that a more than usually rapid accumulation of deposits at the upper

entrance of the Garai may have deflected the course of the great stream farther to the east; but it is certain that all the ground lying along the general line of the offset of the Ganges has not been nearly filled up to the general level of the ground on either side. It is along this unfilled-in depression that the immense marshes and swamps of the western and north-western side of Bákarganj occur. The Sundarban tract in Bákarganj is not by any means so extensive as in the Districts on its west. Along the banks of the branches of the Meghná, the land is cleared and cultivated almost to the very sea. Along the Haringhátá, on the other side of the District, clearings are progressing, and cultivation is now appearing wherever fresh water can be procured. The level of the sea itself is, however, not constant. Owing to the accumulation of the waters of the Indian Ocean in the Bay of Bengal by the steady action of the south-west monsoon, and to the fact that this occurs during the rainy season in Bengal, when all the streams are in flood, the level of the water along Bákarganj is often four or four and a half feet higher during the autumn than in the spring. The District being, as already stated, one dead level, the water, during this season, spreads over the whole country; and only the villages, each raised on its own little mound, stand out above the flood. These floods, however, leave behind them a thin layer of fertilising slime, which repays the peasant for the loss caused by the inundation.

ADDITIONAL NOTE.

Since the foregoing Account of Bákarganj District was printed, I have received a very valuable Special Report on the Land Tenures. It is now too late to insert it at its proper place, but I give it as an Appendix at the end of this volume.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF FARÍDPUR.

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THE DISTRICT OF FARÍDPUR.[1]

FARÍDPUR, the most westerly District of the Dacca Division, lies between 23° 54′ 55″ and 22° 47′ 53″ north latitude, and 89° 21′ 50″ and 90° 16′ east longitude. It contains an area, as returned by the Surveyor-General in 1871, of 1524·06 square miles, and a population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, of 1,012,589 souls. The principal Civil Station, which is also the chief town of the District, is Farídpur situated on the west bank of a small stream called Marà Padmá, in 23° 36′ north latitude and 89° 52′ east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.—Farídpur District is bounded on the north and east by the Ganges or Padmá river; on the west by the Chandná,

[1] My account of Farídpur District is chiefly derived from the following sources:—(1) From the answers to my five series of questions furnished by Mr C. A. Kelly, C.S., countersigning materials drawn up by Bábu Bhuban Mohan Ráhá, Deputy Collector; (2) Account of Farídpur, printed in the Report on the History and Statistics of the Dacca Division (1868); (3) Colonel J. E. Gastrell's Revenue Survey Report on the Districts of Jessor, Farídpur, and Bákarganj (1868); (4) Bengal Census Report of 1872; (5) Report on the Food of the People, by Dr B. N. Basu, Civil Surgeon of Farídpur, dated 31st January 1873; (6) Special Report on rates of rent for different descriptions of land in each Fiscal Division of the District, dated 12th August 1872; (7) Report of Inspector-General of Police for 1871; (8) Jail Statistics, specially furnished by the Inspector-General of Jails, and Annual Jail Report for 1870; (9) Educational Statistics, compiled from the Reports of the Educational Department for 1856-57, 1860-61, 1870-71, and 1871-72; (10) Postal Statistics, specially furnished by the Director-General of Post-Offices; (11) Board of Revenue's Report of area, number of estates, amount of land revenue, &c., of each Fiscal Division in the District; (12) Area Report, and Statement of latitudes and longitudes, by the Surveyor-General; (13) Medical Report, furnished by Dr B. N. Basu, Civil Surgeon. Personal observations and inquiries.

Barásiá, and Madhumatí rivers, the two latter being merely different names for different parts of the same stream; to the south, the boundary consists of the Kumár river, and a line of swamps and marshes. Faríḍpur borders on Jessor to the west, on Pabná to the north, on Dacca to the east, and on Bákarganj to the south.

DISTRICT JURISDICTION (1870).—There is no difference between the Revenue and Magisterial jurisdictions, and the limits of the Civil jurisdiction are nearly conterminous with those of the Revenue and Magisterial jurisdiction, with the exception of some parts in the north-west and south-east of the District. The alluvial accretions (*chars*) or islands of Sháhmírpur and Rámnagar in the river Padmá towards the north-west, are reported as under the Revenue and Magisterial jurisdiction of Pabná District, but within the Civil jurisdiction of Faríḍpur. Again, in the south-east, the Civil jurisdiction of Faríḍpur extends to certain villages included within the limits of the police circle (*tháná*) of Sibchar on the east bank of the Ariál Khán river, although they are under the Revenue and Magisterial jurisdictions of the Mádárípur Subdivision of the adjacent District of Bákarganj. A proposal to transfer the Mádárípur Subdivision to Faríḍpur District is now under consideration (1873). There are also several villages, situated upon the Faríḍpur side of the boundary line between it and Bákarganj, of which said villages the Criminal jurisdiction at present appertains to the latter District. Arrangements are, however, now being made which will effect the transfer of the Criminal jurisdiction of these villages to Faríḍpur, and thus get rid of the anomaly (1873).

FORMATION OF THE DISTRICT.—In 1582, during the reign of the Emperor Akbar, the Province of Bengal was formed into thirty-three *sarkárs* or financial subdivisions, and Faríḍpur appears to have been included within the *sarkár* of Muhammad Abúd. Being near the seaside, it was exposed to the attacks and incursions of the Maghs, a race which at that time infested all the sea-coast from Arákán as far as the Sundarbans. It was also liable to the invasions of the Assamese, who sailed down the Brahmaputra ravaging the country on either bank. During the reign of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, these depredations were carried on to such an extent as to cause a falling off in the imperial revenue. In 1721 a new partition of the country was made, the Province of Bengal being formed into 13 large divisions (*chaklás*), instead of 33 *sarkárs*. In 1765 the financial administration of Faríḍpur, together with the rest of Bengal, was

ceded to the English, and in 1790 they assumed the actual criminal administration of the country, and the Collectors were invested with magisterial powers. In 1793 the Collectors were relieved of their magisterial duties, and separate officers were appointed, uniting in one person the functions of judge and magistrate. The greater portion of the present District was then comprised within the tract of country known as Dacca Jalálpur, the headquarters of which was at Dacca city. The magistracy of Dacca Jalálpur included not only a large portion of what is now Farídpur, but also the police sections of Jafarganj and Nawábganj to the east of the Padmá river. It did not, however, comprise the city of Dacca, which formed a separate magistracy. A portion of the existing District of Farídpur not included in Dacca Jalálpur, namely, the present police section of Bhúshná with part of Maksúdpur was included in Jessor, while Gopínáthpur Fiscal Division was included in Bákarganj. In 1811 it was deemed expedient to separate Dacca Jalálpur from the Dacca Collectorate. Courts were built at the town of Farídpur, and about the same time the tract east of the river Chandná was transferred from Jessor to Dacca Jalálpur. The jurisdiction on the east of the Padmá river was not interfered with. Subsequently the name of the District was changed from Dacca Jalálpur to its present designation of Farídpur, when the tract of country to the east of the Padmá was given up and transferred to Dacca, the Fiscal Division of Gopínáthpur being annexed to Farídpur from Bákarganj. The formation of Farídpur District, as now constituted, was not the work of any single year. But its separate existence dates from the erection of the Courts in 1811.

THE GENERAL ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY is flat, tame, and uninteresting; although in the northern tract the land is comparatively high, with a light sandy soil, covered with water during the rains, but dry during the cold and hot seasons. From the town of Farídpur the ground slopes, until in the south, on the confines of Bákarganj, it becomes one immense swamp, never entirely dry. In this tract all communication is carried on by means of boats. The soil changes from light sandy to a deep alluvial deposit or loam. The following account of the characteristic aspects of the villages is extracted from Colonel Gastrell's Revenue Survey Report:—

"In Farídpur the villages are either scattered in large clumps here and there over the plain, or extend themselves in long, and often continuous, lines. In every case, except in villages of very recent

formation, the sites are densely wooded with mango, date, betel, palm, and other trees, intermixed with bamboos, gigantic creepers, and all kinds of tropical vegetation, with huts and gardens scattered throughout the jungle. The villages are always found on the highest spots in the neighbourhood of, or on the very borders of, the marshes, or they wind through the country, following the tortuous curves of the numerous streams that intersect it in all directions, and whose banks being raised higher than the rest of the country by the annual inundation deposits, offer the best localities for building, whilst a plentiful supply of fresh water may generally be obtained during the driest season from their beds. Along many of the larger streams the line of villages is often unbroken for miles together, so much so, that it is quite impossible to identify the end of one village from the commencement of the next. The huts, except in markets and bázárs, are, however, seldom close together, but are scattered amidst small garden plots, mango, date, and betel-nut groves, *pán* gardens, &c. The plains between the villages are almost invariably more or less depressed towards the centre, where usually a marsh, or lake, or deep lagoon may be found, which doubtless once formed portions of some of the numerous outlets by which the Ganges in former days found its way to the sea. The whole country, in fact, is indented and marked with these old river beds, all indicative of the many and great changes that have operated over these tracts in times past, and which are still acting, more slowly perhaps, but as surely, in the present." During the height of the inundation of the Ganges, the whole District may be said to be under water, the artificially-raised villages in the low lands forming so many islands. The people go about in boats to keep up communication between one quarter of a village and another. The southern part of the District consists of a vast network of swamps and marshes. The villages, hidden in a dense jungle of bamboos, betel-nut palms, and other trees, are built on the highest ground, and (as above stated) form a ring round each swamp. This repeated *ad infinitum* gives a general idea of the scenery. One swamp (*bil*) is connected with another by means of a narrow water-course (*khál*), the banks of which are thickly wooded with canes and trees, so as to appear to be remnants of some primeval forest. It might naturally be supposed that a marshy region of this sort would be very sparsely populated. So far from this being the case, however, the Census Returns show it to be teeming with human

life, and the Collector makes the following remarks on this subject:—"The police circle (*thánd*) of Maksúdpur, which is situated in the very midst of this inhospitable region, shows a return of 136,069 inhabitants, or 613 persons to the square mile. The banks of the streams traversing the swamps of the south are covered by one long continuous line of densely-populated villages. The river Kumár, for instance, which winds like a huge snake all over the District, presents this spectacle, and it is much the same with the Sítal Lákhmiá, and other streams. In addition to this, the dreary and unwholesome swamps of the extreme south are themselves largely peopled by a highly interesting Chandál race. These Chandáls believe themselves to have been once a complete Hindu community, consisting of all castes from Bráhmans downwards, who, on having the misfortune to be cursed in a body by a vengeful Bráhman of great sanctity in Dacca, quitted their homes and emigrated in a body to the southern wastes of Farídpur, Jessor, and Bákarganj. There with great perseverance and toil they raised in the centre of the swamps large hillocks from twelve to twenty feet in height, whereon they built their homesteads in the dry weather in order to preserve their cattle and goods during the high inundations. In this place they are located to the present day, cultivating the swamps with rice and jute, and carrying on the occupations of fishing and bird-catching, varied with mat and basket weaving, and the cutting of grass for thatching purposes and for the consumption of their cattle. In the dry weather they often suffer considerably from scarcity of water, and at times almost die from thirst. As they do not preserve water in tanks, they are often reduced to what little they may have kept by them in their earthen vessels, and not unfrequently drink it when it has become quite thick and green. In the rains the water rises over ten feet, and leaves their artificial mounds like so many islands in a huge lake. Locomotion then becomes impossible except by boat, while they have to collect all their cattle and keep them in their homesteads, feeding them on what fodder they may have stored up during the dry season, and on a grass which, like the rice, grows with the rise of the water, and in appearance very much resembles paddy. These cattle have often to remain for days standing above their bellies in water, and as their food has to be stored up for them in the homesteads, they are fed on the minimum amount necessary to support existence. Consequently, by the end of the rainy season they are reduced to

skeletons, and very many die in the meantime. It is this that renders it impossible to introduce a larger and less hardy description of cattle. However, notwithstanding all the difficulties this Chandál community have to contend against, they are strongly attached to the home of their adoption, and resist all inducements to abandon it. Efforts, for example, have been made to transfer some of them to the Sundarbans, but with no measure of success. They prefer remaining in the region to which they have adapted themselves perseveringly and laboriously, where they are not likely to be envied in their lot, and where they can dwell together as a distinct community, with their own Bráhmans, their own priests, castes, and traditions. Their occupations, and their enforced practice of going about in boats during a great portion of the year, have rendered the Chandáls a hardy and muscular race." The Chandáls are the most numerous caste in Farídpur District, and will be again alluded to on page 285, when treating of the ethnical division of the people.

The northern part of the District has, during the last hundred years, been gradually raising itself by means of the silt deposited from the rivers. In the north there now remain only one or two large marshes which have not been thus filled up, and in them the process is seen to be rapidly going on. The Collector reports:—"If nothing occurs to obstruct the present steady operation of this consolidation (such as the streams silting up within their own banks and leaving the swamps *in statu quo*), we may look forward to see in time the present lonesome swamps of the south one after another gradually converted into high rich rice-ground, teeming with the date, *supárí*, sugar-cane, and other crops, which are now only found in any abundance in the north."

MOUNTAINS.—There are no mountains, hills, or elevated tracts of land in Farídpur District.

RIVER SYSTEM.—The large rivers of the District, which are navigable by trading-boats of four tons or a hundred *maunds* burden throughout the year, are the Padmá or Ganges, the Ariál Khán, the Madhumatí, and Barásiá. It is impossible to attempt a list of the streams navigable by boats of two tons burden during the rainy season, as at this time of the year nearly the whole country is submerged, and boats of this or even greater burden can ply over almost its whole surface. The numerous small watercourses or *kháls* with which the District is intersected in every direction, and which dry up in the cold weather and the hot season, are

all open for navigation during the rains. The following is a brief list of the larger rivers:—Most important is the GANGES or PADMÁ, forming the boundary of the District to the north and east, separating it from Pabná and Dacca. The river nowhere enters the District; it first touches its north-west corner at Bhelriá Báriá Factory, near a small village called Mirgidángá, whence it flows along the north boundary as far as Goálanda, the terminus of the Eastern Bengal Railway. At this place the Jamuná, or main stream of the Brahmáputra, flowing from the north, empties itself into the Padmá, and the united stream flows south and south-east along the eastern boundary of the District. At Goálanda, where the two great rivers meet, the current is so strong, and the eddies and whirlpools formed by the meeting of the waters so numerous, that the largest and most powerful river steamers on the Assam line are often unable to make headway, and have to lie for days at Goálanda point until the river subsides. The Collector of the District states that during the heavy rains of 1869 there were at one time no fewer than six river steamers with flats in tow lying at Goálanda unable to proceed up the Jamuná. The Ganges at present exhibits a tendency to silt up between the towns of Faríd pur and Pabná, and to seek an outlet by means of the Garai river; but as the line of drainage runs principally from north to south, and as Faríd pur would still have a large river compassing it on the east and on the west, such a change is not likely to be attended with any evil consequences. The average width of the Padmá here, navigable throughout the year by native cargo boats of the largest size and by river steamers, is estimated by Colonel Gastrell at 1600 yards. The principal branch of the Padmá is the Ariál Khán river, sometimes called the Bhubaneswar in the upper part of its course. It leaves the parent stream a few miles from the town of Faríd pur, and forms the large island known as Char Mukundiá. It first flows in a south-easterly, and afterwards in a southerly direction, finally taking its exit from the District near Mádárípur on the northern boundary of Bákarganj, at the point where the Kumár river flows into it from the west. The Ariál Khán is navigable by large native boats throughout the year, and has an average breadth during the rainy season of 1600 yards. The principal tributary of the Ariál Khán is the Nílákhí Khál, a stream which flows from the Kumár river, and runs a course of two or three miles from west to east till it falls into the Ariál Khán just below the village of Nílákhí. This stream has an average

breadth of twenty-five yards in the dry season and fifty yards in the rains. It is navigable for small boats all the year round. Another tributary of the Ariál Khán is the Kachikátá Khál, a stream running east and west, and only navigable for five months in the year.

THE CHANDNÁ RIVER forms a portion of the western boundary of Farídpur. It branches off from the Ganges or Padmá, in the extreme north-east of the District, at the village of Mirgidángá, whence it runs along the western boundary in a tortuous course, but generally from north to south, till it falls into the Garai at Maslandpur village, near the large town and mart of Sayyidpur. It has no tributaries worthy of notice. In the dry season the river has an average width of about fifty yards, and in the rains of about eighty yards. It is only open for navigation for about five months in the year. The stream has gradually silted up, and in the hot and dry seasons is almost dry in many parts of its course. From the confluence of the Chandná with the Garai, the united stream continues its course southwards to the sea along the western boundary of Farídpur, under the name of the Madhumatí, till it takes its exit from the District.

THE MADHUMATÍ is a large river, navigable all the year round by boats of considerable burden. It has an average breadth of a hundred and fifty yards during the dry season, and of two hundred yards during the rains. A great traffic is carried on by means of the Madhumatí and Garai to all parts of India, and large boats may be seen going up and down at all times of the year. It is the first navigable channel that presents itself after rounding the Sundarbans, and the banks are well defined and adapted for towing. The Barásiá river, a branch of the Madhumatí, leaves the parent stream at Goálbárí, flows to the south, and after a course of about twenty miles, again falls into the Madhumatí at Bhátiápárá within the District. It is navigable by large boats throughout the year. The tributaries of the Madhumatí are the Bankáná Khál, the Nabagangá, and the Máchiákhálí, but these streams flow into it from the neighbouring District of Jessor, and do not pass through Farídpur.

THE KUMÁR RIVER branches off from the Chandná near Kanáipur, a village a few miles from the Civil Station, and after a tortuous course, generally from north-west to south-east, leaves the District at Mádárípur, and passes into Bákarganj. The river is navigable in the rains for trading boats from its source as far as Kanáipur; and thence to Mádárípur it is navigable by small boats throughout the

year. It is reported that two branches of the Kumár river might be utilised for opening out the resources of the country. The principal branch is the Sítal Lakhmiá, which runs from Talmá Police Station, and joins the Kumár at Bhángá. This stream is navigable for large boats during the rains; but in the dry season it is not so navigable, on account of the bed having filled up in a few places between Talmá and Ajiá Gaispur, the intervening parts containing a considerable depth of water. All that is necessary to render the river navigable throughout the year is to deepen these parts. If this work was carried out, there would be open boat communication between Bhángá, a large and flourishing trading mart, and Talmá; from which point there is road communication as far as the town of Farídpur. The second branch leaves the Kumár a little above Bhángá at Bálugám; it runs through some of the large swamps that are found in the south of the District, and finally empties itself into the Madhumatí. This stream, like the one alluded to above, only requires to be deepened in places. If it were made navigable for boats all the year round, a communication would be opened between the station of Farídpur and Gopálganj, another important mart. The stream, if opened out, would also afford an easy passage for boats going to Calcutta by way of the Sundarbans, which have now to proceed through Bákarganj District. The deepening of the Bálugrám Khál, as this branch of the Kumár is called, would moreover drain two or three large swamps, and enable a quantity of marsh land to be reclaimed. The Collector of the District in 1867, who makes these suggestions (pages 199, 200, of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division" —Farídpur Section), states that the landlord of that part of the country is fully alive to the advantages likely to accrue from opening up the stream, and is willing to bear half the expense of the work. The minor tributaries of the Kumár are the Marú Padmá, which flows into it at Kanáipur, and the Hazrákhálí, a branch of the Chandná, which empties itself into it higher up.

ALLUVION AND DILUVION.—All the rivers mentioned above, but more particularly the Padmá, are subject to constant alluvion and diluvion on a large scale. The number of alluvial accretions and sandbanks formed by the rivers, and afterwards cut away and deposited in another spot, is very great. The following list shows a few of the most important cases of alluvion which have taken place in the District during recent years:—(1) Char Panchás Hazárí;

this alluvion commenced to form about 1826. (2) Char Khánpurá, commencing from Parnáráyánpur, and terminating at Kásináthpur; commenced to form about 1834. (3) Rájás Char, commencing from Das Hazárí and terminating at Kosábhángá; commenced to form about the year 1854. (4) Char Dattapárá, commencing from the village of the same name on the river Ariál Khán, and terminating at Samáil. (5) Char Sonásir Tek, extending from Char Bandarkholá to Burhánganj; (6) Char Jamálpur, extending from Asápur to Jamálpur. (7) Char Láujáná, extending from Asápur to Mathurápur. Instances of diluvion are quite as numerous. It appears that the river Padmá, from Krishnapur, is at present cutting its west bank; but higher up, the current sets against the east bank, which is there being washed away. The principal cases of diluvion which have occurred of late years are the following:—(1) A tract of land called Taraf Balair, in the Police Section of Belgáchhí, in the north of the District, consisting of seventeen villages, was completely washed away by the Padmá in the course of two or three years. (2) Taraf Betká, in the Police Section of the same name on the Padmá, about ten miles north-west of the station of Farídpur, consisting of seven or eight villages. (3) Taraf Krishnanagar, in the Police Section of Belgáchhí, consisting of three or four villages. (4) Almost the whole of the Fiscal Division of Char Hai Mádhabdiá; (5) and the greater portion of Pátposar Fiscal Division, have been also washed away by the Padmá. Not a trace of two large villages in Hákimpur Fiscal Division, named Syámnagar and Kálínagar, is now to be found, as they were entirely washed away by the current of the Padmá about twelve years since. A great portion of the Fiscal Division of Kásimnagar has also been destroyed in the same manner.

CHANGES IN RIVER CHANNELS.—There is a tradition in the District that formerly the Ganges or Padmá took a southerly direction at Salímpur, a village about twenty-five miles north of the town of Farídpur, and after running by Kanáipur, flowed towards the east, and discharged itself into the present Padmá below the Civil Station, which was then but a narrow stream, and not the main channel of the river. This old channel has now silted up, and is known by the name of the Marí Padmá. About thirty or forty years ago, the *bandar* or bázár of Madhukhálí village was situated on the south bank of the river Chandná. The stream suddenly changed its course, and began to flow past the south of the bázár. The market-

place has since been again removed to the south bank of the river. About sixteen or seventeen years ago, Baikunthpur was situated on the north bank of the Chandná, but the river has since then changed its course, and it is now situated on the south bank. Such changes in the channel are of almost yearly occurrence in the Padmá. This river, indeed, has now several channels, flowing between constantly shifting sandbanks and small islands. To give any idea of the changes in the channels is simply impossible; sometimes one channel being navigable, and sometimes another.

The Ganges is now endeavouring to obtain a straight main channel to the sea by means of the Garai river, with its continuation the Madhumatí and Haringhátá rivers. The following account of the changes going on is very slightly condensed from Colonel Gastrell's Revenue Survey Report of the Districts of Jessor, Faríd-pur, and Bákarganj, and although the remarks do not exclusively apply to Faridpur District, they may fitly be introduced here. The Garai diverges from the Ganges at Kushtiá, and follows a south-easterly course more or less tortuous as far as Maslandpur, where the Chandná river falls into it. Thence the united stream flows southwards, but with many windings in its upper reaches, first as the Madhumatí, and afterwards as the Haringhátá, under which name it falls into the Bay of Bengal. This is the great route for river steamers between Calcutta and the North-Western Provinces during the dry season, and when the Nadiyá rivers are closed. The flow of water from the Ganges down this great water-way is steadily increasing. In 1828 the Garai at Kushtiá was only 600 feet broad. But when, in 1854-55, it was surveyed by Mr Pemberton, Revenue Surveyor, the average breadth of its upper reaches, from the village of Bahádurkhálí to that of Ráipur, was 1320 feet; at the entrance it was 1400 feet, which in subsequent years increased to 1560 feet. It has therefore more than doubled its discharging power since 1828. These are, it should be remarked, the breadths of the river during high floods. At times, when the Jamuná or Brahmaputra river is in full flood, it dams up the Ganges, and still further increases the flow of water down the Garai, which forms at such times the principal outlet for the Ganges waters into the sea. The banks of the stream are mostly high and precipitous in the upper reaches, but gradually decrease in height to the south, until reaching the police station of Kachuá, below which the river overflows its banks during high spring tides in

many places. The water is sweet and excellent till within a few miles of the sea, and of sufficient depth for ships of large size as far as Kachuá. The changes that have taken place in this river since Rennell's survey during the last century, can best be judged of by reference to the maps. Then the Garai was very small, and the chief tract for boats from the Ganges into the Madhumatí was *viâ* the Chandná river, which branches off south from the Ganges about twenty-six miles below the Garai. The Chandná is now a very insignificant stream; is silting up fast; and, with the exception of pools here and there, is dry in the summer months.

The Ganges, between the Garai entrance at Kushtiá and its junction with the Jamuná, between Jafarganj and Eláchipur, has straightened its course considerably, and appears inclined to do so still more. But still it is a question whether it is not silting up entirely between the Faridpur and Pabná Districts. Speaking of the action of the Jamuná or Brahmaputra (the Junái of old maps), in silting up and driving back the Ganges, Mr Fergusson thus writes in the *Quarterly Journal* of the Geological Society in August 1863:—"It was so nearly successful, that in 1838 the great Ganges was fordable at several places above the junction; . . . and it must have been successful if the Ganges had been able to find another outlet." It certainly had silted up considerably, and was again fordable in parts when the survey was progressing in these Districts. And if this action continues, then the Garai will probably become the principal outlet for the Ganges waters, and, during the dry months, the most easterly one also. If such a contingency occurs, it would very materially increase the value and importance of the Eastern Bengal Railway extension from Kushtiá to Goálanda; for if the present route for boats between the Jamuná and the Garai closed, they would be obliged to go round by the Sundarbans *viâ* Barisál, a difficult and tedious route at any time, and especially so in the months when north-westers are prevalent on the great Meghná, or they must unload and send all goods by rail.

The only influence that now seems to operate in preventing the Ganges from being driven back by the Jamuná, and forced into another course, is thus mentioned by Mr Fergusson, viz., that although the rise and fall of the Brahmaputra takes place earlier than the same phenomena in the Ganges, "the consequence being that for the first month of the inundation the water in the Ganges above Jafarganj almost flows backwards, and the Ichhámatí at Pabná

flows into the Ganges instead of out of it, and during this season the deposit in its bed is very considerable;" yet that, "during the last months of the rains, when the waters of the Brahmaputra have nearly run off, the immense body of water spread over the vast plains of Hindustán rushes into the partially-deserted bed of the Brahmaputra, which then acts as a water reservoir, with a force that to a great extent clears out the deposit of the earlier months, and so restores the equilibrium." This state of antagonism between the two rivers will continue until the Ganges has opened a sufficiently large outlet for herself by the Garai, or other streams still farther to the west. When she has done that, should there then be two or three years of long duration of floods in the Brahmaputra, and of early cessation of the Ganges floods, we shall no doubt see the latter river beaten in the contest, and, unable to clear out the deposit of the earlier months, retire from the field.

Below the extreme eastern point of the Eastern Bengal Railway extension at Goálanda, the changes in the courses of the joint streams Ganges, Brahmaputra, and Meghná, have, ever since Rennell's time, and no doubt long before, been constant, and are still going on. Between that point and the sea, immense islands or *chars* are annually thrown up in one place, and washed away in others. Large portions of the country on both banks are still unconsolidated, and being covered only by grass or reed jungle, are easily acted upon by the flood waters. Indeed it was often difficult for surveyors to recognise the country that had been surveyed by them only the year before. A comparison of the two maps of 1764–72 and 1847–63 will show what changes have actually occurred in that interval. The most important change appears to be where the joint streams Ganges and Brahmaputra forced their way into the Meghná, between Rájbárí and Rájnagar, partially deserting the old channel shown between Rájnagar and Bhadreswar in Rennell's map, and thus bringing the waters of the Brahmaputra, reinforced by those of the Ganges, again into direct antagonism with those of the Meghná. But here also the Meghná, being first in the field, has hitherto obliged the Brahmaputra and Ganges to seek another outlet. This they have done by forcing a passage down the Bhubaneswar river (the Hároilla river of Rennell), entering the old channel of the Ariál Khán river again at Mádáripur. Many years must yet pass ere this part of the country will be sufficiently consolidated to control and restrain the courses of these rivers within

permanent limits. On the Tipperah side, the country generally, down to the Dákátiá river, being well wooded and firm, offers considerable resistance to the action of the tremendous floods of these great rivers. This forces them, as one river or the other prevails, to cut out new channels in the softer and more recent deposits of the Bákarganj District on the opposite side.

The banks of the rivers in the District are generally high and abrupt on one side, and shelving on the other. The beds of the rivers Padmá, Chandná, Madhumatí, and Barásiá are sandy; that of the Kumár being of clay and vegetable mould. This vegetable mould is formed of a species of water-weed called Pátá Sáolá, which is used in the manufacture of sugar. The banks of the Farídpur river are, for the most part, cultivated, and dotted with numerous villages, sometimes extending in a continuous line for many miles. The alluvial accretions (*chars*) formed by the Padmá are generally covered with jungle on the Farídpur side of the river, but on the opposite bank they are cultivated, and contain numerous villages, apparently densely populated. The Ganges or Padmá has formed numerous islands in its course along the boundary of this District, of which the following are the principal, with their approximate area:—(1) Ujáin Char, area about 9179 acres; (2) Char Teprákándí, area about 5127 acres; (3) Char Nasírpur, area about 11,735 acres; and (4) Char Bhadrásan, area about 7340 acres. The rivers in this District nowhere enter the earth by any subterraneous course, nor do they anywhere expand into large lakes. None of them have a bore. The rivers Ariál Khán, Padmá, Kumár, and Madhumatí, in the south and south-east of the District, are affected by the tide, but very slightly, and in some places it is scarcely perceptible. During the rainy season, not a single river in the District is fordable, but in the dry season there are numerous fords on the Chandná and Kumár rivers. The Padmá, Madhumatí, and Ariál Khán are not fordable at any time of the year at any place throughout their entire course within the District.

MARSHES, INLAND LAKES, &c.—The marshes in the District are too numerous to be mentioned in detail, but the following is a list of the most important:—(1) The Dhol Samudra, situated a short distance to the south-east of the Civil Station. During the height of the rains this marsh expands into a lake, the water extending to near the houses of the town. At that season it is about eight miles in circumference, but in the cold weather it gradually dwindles,

and in the hot season is only a mile or two in circumference. It is navigable only during the rains. (2) Bil Patiá, in the Fiscal Division of Belgáchhí, is about three miles in length by two in breadth, and is only navigable during the rainy season. (3) Bil Hátimohan, about two and a half miles in length by two in breadth; not navigable in the dry weather. (4) Bil Rankolí, in the Fiscal Division of Sátor, is about fifteen miles in length and six miles in breadth; not navigable in the dry season. It contains several villages within it, built on artificially-raised sites. (5) The Nasibsháhí marsh, in the Fiscal Division of the same name, is about sixteen miles long and six miles broad, but, like the others mentioned above, is only navigable during the rains. It also contains artificially-raised villages within its limits. In the southern part of the District the marshes are too numerous to mention; and, in fact, the whole of the tract comprised within the jurisdiction of the police circle (*tháná*) of Maksúdpur is one vast swamp, with isolated strips of dry land during the dry season. Within this swamp are several artificially-raised mounds, inhabited by Chandáls, a low caste of Hindus, who keep up communication from village to village, and often from house to house, by boat, for the greater part of the year. The principal marshes in the south of the District are the Mottar Bil, Chandra Bil, and Bakhshir Bil. The average annual loss of life by drowning in Farídpur District for the six years ending 1869 is stated to be 105.

RIVER TRAFFIC.—The following towns, or rather large trading marts, situated on the river banks, are inhabited by a community which mainly lives by river traffic:—Bhandáriá, Khánkhánápur, Mukundiá, Deolí, Lakhmíkul, Chhaddarasí, Sadrpur, and Goálanda, on the banks of the Padmá; Rámdiá, Baharpur, Arkándí, Jamálpur, Mathurápur, Madhukhálí, and Kámárkhálí, on the banks of the Chandná; Sayyidpur and Boálmárí, on the Barásiá; Kanáipur, Dhobádángá, Kháskándi, Rámdiá, Golá Jainagar, and Bhángá, on the Kumár; and Gopálganj, Bhatiápárá, and Pátghátí, on the Madhumatí. Rice, tobacco, salt, cotton, oil, linseed, mustard, sugar, molasses, cloth, pulses, jute, onions, piece goods, iron, tin, copper, coal tar, mustard oil, brass, brass and copper manufactured utensils, and timber of various kinds, are the principal articles of river traffic, which forms the chief support of these towns or markets. The non-navigable rivers and streams in the District are nowhere applied as a motive power for turning mills, nor have they any descents or rapids sufficient to render it likely that they could be

so utilised by the formation of dams or weirs. Indeed, since the closing of the indigo factories of the District, the Collector states that he is not aware of any mill being in existence in the District worthy of notice. The water of the rivers, watercourses, and marshes is nowhere utilised for the purposes of irrigation.

FISHERIES are extensively carried on in Farídpur, and contribute in no small degree to its material wealth. Farídpur may be termed without impropriety a fishing District, and it is generally supposed (reports the Collector), that a traffic to the extent of £20,000 is annually carried on in the produce of the fisheries. Fishermen from the neighbouring Districts of Dacca and Pabná, as well as those resident in Farídpur, take every year leases of certain portions of the rivers for catching *hilsá*, *rui*, *kátlá*, *dháin*, *páṅgás*, and other large fish, which yield them a considerable profit. The following is a list of a few of the principal fisheries of the District, with the estimated value of the traffic carried on in the produce:—(1) Jalkar Islámpur, in the north, extending from the town of Goálanda to Bhuluábárí westwards; estimated value of traffic about £2500 a year. (2) Jalkar Girdbhátí, extending from Goálanda to Icháil Sibrámpur; annual traffic about £3000. (3) Jalkar Mehmúdpur, extending from Icháil Sibrámpur to Chándpur; annual traffic about £200. (4) Jalkar Mubárakpur Ujáil, extending from Chándpur to Krishnapur; annual traffic about £2500. (5) Jalkar Char Mukundiá, extending from Ráotir Dhálá to Das Hazárí; annual traffic value about £300. (6) Jalkar Nárikholá, extending from Das Hazárí to Nílákhí Khál; traffic about £500. With regard to the fisheries in the marshes in the southern part of the District, the following account is extracted from Colonel Gastrell's Survey Report, before alluded to:—"These *jhils*, and the streams that traverse them, afford also an inexhaustible supply of various kinds of fish, crabs, and prawns to the various local markets. At certain seasons of the year, no small quantity of the fish is conveyed to the Calcutta and other markets along the canal or Sundarban routes, by which all the traffic in boats is carried on between the eastern Districts and the metropolis. The fishes in this case are stored in reservoirs constructed in the middle of the boat, and closed by a grating at bottom, through which a constant and fresh supply of water is afforded. The boats are well manned and swift, and are pulled day and night. The fishermen cast the dead and dying fish overboard *en route*, and by these

means keep a considerable percentage alive, and in a fair condition for market."

The following list of edible fishes of the Faríḍpur District is condensed from a Report by Dr Basu, Civil Surgeon of Faríḍpur, dated 31st January 1873. I trust to him for the scientific names; but a more systematic account will be given in a separate volume, by the Inspector-General of Fisheries. The only sea fish which visits the District is the *bhetkí* or *bhekti*, known locally as the *koráil máchh*. It attains a length, when full grown, of between four and five feet, weighing from 80 to 100 lb. Smaller sizes are common in May or June. The following are the principal river fishes, many of which, however, also inhabit the marshes and tanks, where they find their way during the inundation, or are placed there. Several varieties of scaleless or almost scaleless fishes (order *Siluridæ*) are found in Faríḍpur. Of these, the *boál* often attains a large size, from three to four feet long. It is one of the most voracious of fresh-water fish, subsisting chiefly on crustacea and small fry of all kinds; hence it is dreaded in tanks where fish are preserved. Its flesh is white, coarse, and almost tasteless. The *páḅdá* is a small flat fish, with a white, smooth, shining skin, and a rich, delicate flavour. It is one of the best-tasted of the scaleless tribe, and a wholesome table fish, procurable nearly all the year round. The *chital* is a large flat fish, very oily, full of bones, and far from wholesome, although much prized by the natives of the eastern Districts; the same remark applies to its dwarf representative, the *pholui*. Other varieties of scaleless fishes are the *áir*, *páor*, *páṅgás*, and *dháin*, which constitute a considerable part of the fish diet of the lower orders. The *áir* is composed almost entirely of muscular fibre, but the other species are fat, and possess a rich flavour.

The herring family (*Clupeidæ*) supplies a number of species, such as *phánsá*, *hilsá*, and *chelá*. They have white shining scales, are very bony, and are provided with an air bladder. The two first only inhabit the rivers; the third is also found in tanks and other stagnant water. The *phánsá* is mostly found during the dry season, but the other kinds may be had nearly throughout the year. The most valuable of these fish is the *hilsá*, which is captured in vast numbers during the rains when ascending the streams to spawn; that which is not used for local consumption being salted for export to Calcutta and elsewhere. The mullet tribe of fishes (*Mugilidæ*) is represented by the *khorsolá*, which is to be had in good con-

dition all the year round; it is a rich, delicious fish. From the perch family (*Percidæ*) is derived the well-known *tapsí máchh*, or mango-fish, so called from the season in which it is principally procured. Only a few are caught in the rivers in the north of the District, but they are said to be more common in the streams to the south-west. The *bholá* fish belongs to the cod family (*Gadidæ*). It is generally about a foot long, has few bones, and is well flavoured, but is little thought of by the natives. The carp family (*Cyprindæ*) have several representatives in the District. The most common species are the following:—The *rui*, one of the best of Indian fishes, ordinarily grows to a length of about three feet; it has a small mouth, short, stout head, and reddish-brown scales. The *kátlá* is also a much-prized fish, and is distinguished by its large head, a wide mouth, and pale-bluish scales. It is a gregarious fish, and found swimming in shoals in open water just below the surface. The *káibosh* is a sweet-flavoured fish, with a small mouth, narrow muzzle, and black scales. The *mirgal* is generally found in the muddy bottoms of rivers or tanks, and sometimes attains a length of from five to six feet. Among shell-fish (*Crustacea*), the *galdá chingri*, or cray-fish, abounds in all the rivers. Vast quantities are caught in the inundated fields at the close of the rains, and contribute largely to the food of the people.

The varieties of fish only found in the still water of marshes and tanks are the following:—*Mágur*, a fish about a foot in length, with a large head, a thick and black scaleless skin, abounds in all still water, especially in weedy swampy places. It has a delicate flavour, and is much sought after by the natives. The *singi*, or horned fish, so called from a sting it inflicts when incautiously handled. It resembles the *mágur* in every respect, excepting that it is slenderly formed, and fond of very muddy situations. The *chelá* fish is found in shoals swimming on the surface of all tanks. It is a very greedy fish, and a most useful scavenger in water where much washing and bathing is carried on. Two species of *puṅti* fish are found, one about a couple of inches long, and the other often attaining a foot in length, the former variety being the most common and numerous. The *látá* fish likewise includes two varieties, the *látá* and *saul*, the one usually measuring nine inches, and the other three feet, or even more. They are very solitary in their habits, and abound in all swampy places. Their flesh is not much esteemed. The *kai* and *khalisá* both belong to the order of walking-fishes.

They possess a peculiar saculated structure in the pharynx, which can be filled with water, and by this means they are enabled to perform tolerably long migrations on land in search of a new habitat. They are to be found in greater or less abundance in all stagnant waters. The *kai* is a rich, delicious fish, and accordingly highly prized. It is greatly esteemed as a restorative after sickness, and is administered in the form of soup or broth until the sick person grows sufficiently strong to eat it well fried. It is a small, dark-coloured, greenish fish, purse-mouthed, with two long spines projecting from the upper mandibles, and sharp spines on the gills and upper fin, which latter is very large in proportion to the size of the fish. The *chándá* is a small, round, bony fish, not much valued. The *báliá* is a small fish, very common, and not in great demand. Two kinds of eels, the *báin* and *pánkál*, are found everywhere in old, muddy-bottomed waters. The common *chingri*, or shrimp, abounds. As before mentioned, I trust to Dr Basu for the nomenclature.

METHODS OF CATCHING FISH.—The following are the common nets:—(1) *Mahá jál*, a trawl-net dragged in deep water along the bottom by fishing-boats; its size is about 25 feet long at the top, and 35 feet at the bottom, by 15 feet deep. (2) *Koná jál*, a long funnel-shaped net, with a valvular arrangement at the wide end, dragged along by boats as the last; it is usually from five to six hundred feet long. (3) *Báyer jál*, a deep seine net. (4) *Chhándi jál*, also a seine net, but not very deep, nor buoyed up by floats; used for all small fish. (5) *Dorá chhándi*, like the foregoing, but with thicker and wider meshes, and intended for *hilsá* and other large fish. (6) *Kheplá jál*, a circular net, with weights attached to the circumference, and which is thrown out on to the water by the hand; it is used for all kinds of fish, and is pulled up by a string tied to the centre, the weights attached to the net gradually coming together, and preventing the escape of the fish. (7) *Khárá jál*, a triangular net attached to a bamboo pole, and of which the broad end is dipped in the water and suddenly raised, somewhat similar to an English shrimping-net. (8) *Bhesál jál*, a net similar to the above, but larger, and dragged by a boat. (9) *Dharma jál*, a square net, with a cross arched frame over it. (10) *Sanghá jál*, a drift net shaped like a bag, the mouth of which is armed with a bamboo rib acting like jaws, and closing by a drop or weight at the pleasure of the fisherman; it is dragged along the

bottom. (11) *Khorkí jál*, a net similar to the above, but smaller, and not dragged along the bottom. (12) *Chák jál*, a circular hand-net, surrounded with a bamboo frame, and dragged by the hand in shallow water. (13) *Cháp jál*, a cylindrical hand-net, used for shallow-water fishing. (14) *Hochá jál*, a triangular hand-net, used as above. (15) *Sotá jál*, a funnel-shaped net, set with stakes in a place where there is a current. Numerous bamboo traps are also used for catching fish, of which the principal are the following :— *Khádán*, *báná*, *arinde*, *chárá*, *rávan*, *tupá*, *duár*, *bonchne*, *ghansi*, *paran*, *chai*, *nai*, and *phánsí*. Another mode, often resorted to for catching fish, is a mud embankment on either side of a *khál* or creek, constructed so as to limit the current to a narrow mid-space, which is closely staked with bamboo or wicker work sufficiently high to prevent the fish from jumping over. The embankments at the side are low, and the fish finding themselves crowded in the narrow space, leap over these into pits dug to receive them, and are easily captured. Rod and spear fishing is common, and in shallow pools drying up, fish are caught by the hand.

No fishing towns, properly so called, exist in Farídpur District, but the under-mentioned villages are largely inhabited by the fishing castes, namely—Dayárámpur, Kancharandá, Rákhálgáchhí, and Pánair, on the river Padmá; Rádhákántpur, on the Jaldángá *bil;* Alípur, on the Singair *bil;* Betangá and Maslandpur, on the Chandná river; Bhor Rámdiá, on the Hátimohan *bil;* Goálbárí, Hauslá, Napárá, and Satásí, on the Barásiá river; Rupápát, on the Kumár river; and Mubárakdiá, on the Ichhámatí *bil.* The Collector, in 1870, estimated the fishing population of Farídpur at about 1·56 per cent. of the whole population. His estimate, however, proves to have been considerably too low, as the Census disclosed a total of 29,297 persons, or 2·89 per cent. of the total population as belonging to Hindu fishing and boating castes. This is altogether exclusive of the Muhammadans, who form the majority of the population, and it may be fairly estimated that five per cent. of the total population of Farídpur District live by fishing. Besides the resident fishermen, however, there are a large but unascertained number of persons of the fishing class who come every year to Farídpur from the neighbouring Districts of Dacca and Pabná. Dr Basu, the Civil Surgeon, in his Report before referred to, states that the natives of this part of the country are the most regular fish-eaters to be found anywhere in India. All classes here consume fish, and even Vaishnavs and

Hindu widows, who usually abstain from it elsewhere, where fish is scarce, eat it in this District. The quantity of fish consumed cannot be ascertained, but it forms a large part, if not the greater part, of the food of the people. In certain seasons, when fish is unusually numerous and abundant, the lower classes may be said to almost live on this diet for months together. During the *hilsá* season, which generally lasts from April to July, a large salting business is carried on upon the banks of the Padmá, for the export of this fish to Calcutta and other distant markets. No other fish is so treated, and none is smoked or dried. The abundance of oil which the *hilsá* contains, and which it gives out freely in cooking, is sometimes carefully collected by the poorer classes to cook their food with in other seasons, as well as for burning purposes Notwithstanding the enormous quantities of fish captured every year, the supply does not appear to be diminishing. Dr Basu, who has had fifteen years' local experience, states that the markets have always appeared to be fully supplied, and sometimes glutted. In the *hilsá* season of 1872, the quantity of that fish brought to market so far exceeded the demand for some time, that a considerable part had to be thrown away at the close of each day's sale.

MARSH RECLAMATION AND CULTIVATION.—No rivers or marshes have been embanked in Farídpur with a view to the extension of cultivation. The Collector is of opinion that the marshes, if properly drained by cutting watercourses to connect them with the rivers, can be reclaimed, but it would involve a very great expenditure. The river banks do not produce any reeds or canes, nor does the Collector think they have any capabilities for doing so. The constant alluvion and diluvion going on in them, with the exception of the Kumár, and the strength of the current during the rainy season, renders it (he thinks) unlikely they could be utilised as reed or cane producing grounds. With respect to the marshes in the south of the District, however, the case is different; they produce both canes and reeds very largely, and an extensive trade in mats manufactured from them is carried on throughout the District, chiefly by the Chandáls, a low caste of the Hindus. The marshes abound in wildfowl, and are productive in other ways, thus described at page 21 of Colonel Gastrell's Report:—"Besides being remunerative in fish and fowl, these marshes afford employment to many of the poorer classes, in mat and basket making, in cutting grass and *hoglá* (a broad-leafed flag) for roofs, &c., and in collecting mussels

and snails, from the shells of which the lime is made which is eaten by the natives with *pán* and betel-nut. Large quantities of these crustacea are annually collected from the marshes, and laid out on the banks of the streams until decomposition enables those who collect them to extract the inmates more easily from their shells. Excellent clay is also found in many parts along the banks, from which the potters make the largest kind of earthen pots for packing fish and holding grain and water, measuring ordinarily from four to four and a half feet high by nine or ten feet in circumference."

LONG-STEMMED RICE is also pretty extensively cultivated in the marshes and swamps of the District. The stem increases in length in proportion to the increase of the water on the land in which it is grown; that is to say, it rises with the rise of the water, and ceases to grow as the water ceases to rise. This variety of rice can be grown in water to a depth of eighteen feet. The following are the names of the principal twenty-four varieties of long-stemmed rice cultivated in Farídpur:—*Bághá, lepá, mahishkándi, báliábet, bán sámartha, Lakshmí-dighá, dudh kalam, Lakshmí-kájal, malaj, rángí-nalaj, jhul, dulái, bágráil, dal-kachu, gílá-máitá, gáb-ruá, bhojan-karpur, bayrá, káláburá, gandha kasturí, pitti-ráj, máitchál, kách kalam*, and *bara dighá*.

LINES OF DRAINAGE.—During the rainy season, the District is flooded with water, principally from the north and west, by numerous little *kháls*, or watercourses, such as the Madhupur Khál, Napárá Khál, Kaonáir Khál, Ratandiá Khál, Mátlákhálí, &c. These watercourses fall into the marshes of Nasibsháhí and Mahimsháhí, which are connected with the Kumár river by the Hazrákhálí and other small streams and watercourses. The river flows in a southerly direction, and after many windings finds it way into the Ariál Khán at Mádárípur, in the extreme south-east of the District. The southern marshes are for the most part filled with water by the Nílákhí Khál, which connects them with the Ariál Khán and Padmá on the east, and by the Dhobádángá Khál, Boálmárí Khál, and Ghorákhálí, which connect them with the Barásiá river on the west. In September, when the waters of these streams begin to diminish, the marshes are drained by the same watercourses and streams through which the water enters into them, and also by numerous small channels which connect them with the Kumár.

NO MINERAL PRODUCTS, such as coal, metals, lime, or building stone, are found in the District. Pearls were obtained some years

ago from the Kumár river; they were found in the shell of a species of mussel, and the shells, after the extraction of the pearls, were burnt and converted into lime. The Collector in 1867 reported that the pearl-fishery on the Kumár river yielded about £400 or £500 a year. No caverns, hot springs, or striking phenomena, except the vast rivers and swamps, are found in the District.

NO IMPORTANT REVENUE-YIELDING FORESTS, or wild vegetable productions of marketable value, are found in Faríḍpur, nor any marketable jungle products or uncultivated pasture grounds. Among dyes, *sati* is the only wild plant which has any marketable value. A red powder, called *ábir*, largely used by the Hindus during the *Hulí* festival, is manufactured from the root of this plant. The following medicinal plants grow wild in the District:—*Báblá* (acacia); *mádár* (calotropis); *bhát* (clerodendrom); *anantamúl* (hemidesmus Indicus); *haritaki* (chebula); *chiretá* (agatholes); *dhai phul* (grisla tomentosa); *kaládás* (pharbitis); *dhuturá*; and *kshetrapatpati*. [I trust for the names to the Collector.] No class in Faríḍpur subsists by trading in jungle products.

FERÆ NATURÆ, &c.—The larger sorts of wild animals found in the District consist of buffaloes, leopards, and pigs. The latter swarm in almost all the villages in the north-west and south of the country, and do considerable damage. Their numbers of late years have increased to such an extent that the Collector expresses his opinion, that unless prompt measures are taken for their destruction, many of the villages of the District will be given back to the jungle. In some villages the outlying lands cannot find cultivators, owing to the depredations of wild hogs. The villagers have not yet learnt self-help, and seldom destroy these animals, which are allowed to breed and multiply undisturbed. The small village leopard, not the panther, is to be found throughout the District, and on the islands and sandbanks in the Padmá. Wild buffaloes are common during the cold season. The average expenditure by Government on keeping down wild animals during the six years ending 1869 amounted to only 17s. 6d. per annum. No rewards have ever been given in this District for snake-killing. The average recorded number of deaths from wild beasts and snake-bite during the six years ending 1869 amounted to 142 per annum. The smaller varieties of game consist of hares, porcupines, wild geese, wild ducks of various sorts, snipe, curlew, teal; quails, dove, *hariál* or green pigeon, &c. A list of the principal fishes has been already given. No trade is

carried on in wild-beast skins, and, with the exception of the fisheries, the *feræ naturæ* are not made to contribute in any way towards the wealth of the District.

POPULATION.—No regular and systematic Census exists for Faríd-pur District before the year 1872. Formerly it was the custom to call for a return from every police station in the District of the number of inhabitants within its jurisdiction, the figures being filled in by the Police Inspectors. These returns, however, were little better than guess-work, and were formed on no fixed principle. At the time of the Revenue Survey of the District in 1856-63, a rough Census was made by the Civil Officers and employés of the Demarcation Establishment. The number of houses was counted as nearly as could be, and allowing on an average five souls to each house, a general and approximate return of the population of the District was arrived at. The result of the Census was as follows:—Number of masonry houses, 350; number of mud and thatch houses, 124,732; population, 409,995 souls. In 1869, in compliance with instructions conveyed in a Resolution of the Government of Bengal dated 11th November 1868, and a Circular from the Registrar-General dated the 23d of the same month, an experimental Census was taken of certain villages in the District, in order to accustom the people to the idea of a general Census subsequently. Two circles were formed, namely, the Kanáipur Circle in the centre, and the Belgáchhí Circle in the north of the District, the former tract consisting of six, and the latter of nine villages. The Census of these two circles was taken on the same day, the enumeration in the Kanáipur tract being conducted by the superior landlords of the place and their officers, with the assistance of some officers from the Collector's Court; while that of Belgáchhí was taken by the Police Inspector stationed there, with the co-operation of the superior landlord of Hamdínpur. The following was the result of the Census:—Nine villages of Belgáchhí—number of houses, 922; population, 2071 males and 1918 females; total, 3989; average number of souls per house, 4·33. Six villages in Kanáipur—area, 5360 acres; number of houses, 924; population, 1321 males and 1339 females; total, 2660; average number of souls per house, 2·88; average number of souls per acre, ·5.

CENSUS OF 1872.—A careful Census of the District was taken, by authority of Government, in the early part of 1872. The enumeration was made by village heads (*mátabbars*), police officers,

Magistrates' clerks, and other respectable natives selected by the Magistrate, the Census being taken simultaneously throughout the District on the night of the 15th January. It disclosed a total population of 1,012,589 souls, inhabiting 157,518 houses, the pressure of population being an average of 677 persons per square mile. The population is thickest in the northern part of the District, the southern part being swampy, and almost entirely inundated for a large part of the year. The police circle of Deorá, however, in the south-east of the District, is the most populous of all; it is intersected by two large rivers, the banks of which are high, and crowded with an immense population. The headquarters police circle has fewer inhabitants than might have been expected. The Magistrate and Collector of the District, Mr W. S. Wells, thus remarks on the distribution of the people in the several police circles:—"Faridpur police circle has only a population of 558 per square mile, but this is accounted for by a large portion of its area being covered by the lake, Dhol Samudra. Deorá *thánd* is reported to possess 947, and Bhúshná 846 inhabitants to the square mile. These two are the most densely populated police circles (*thánás*) in the District, but are physically very different from each other—the former lying in the inundated tract, whereas the latter is comparatively dry. Through Deorá run the Kumár and Sítal Lakhmiá, the former meandering all over the police circle, and these rivers join at Bhángá. Throughout their length their banks are covered by one continuous village, thickly peopled. Bhángá is a large and important town, the principal seat of commerce in the District, situated on the highroad to Calcutta from the whole of Eastern Bengal, and a place where much produce changes hands. The banks of the Barásiá, in Bhúshná, are densely populated, and although Sayyidpur has lost much of its former importance and notoriety as a great centre of trade, it is still a village which extends for miles. The comparative sparseness of the population in the police circle of Gopálganj results from this country being to a large extent covered by water all the year round, and nowhere, except in the immediate proximity of the Madhumatí, is the land not immersed several feet during the prevalence of the annual inundation. That the rich and high country to the north about Goálanda and Pángsá should possess a population of 767 and 717 respectively to the square mile, is not surprising. The Census, it must be borne in mind, was taken towards the

close of the cold weather, at a time when the paddy is all gathered in the inundated tracts, and where no cold weather crops are grown. The males of these parts generally migrate southwards in search of employment to the Sundarbans, or go there to cut timber, which they import; some, too, were attracted north by the works of the Eastern Bengal Railway, which runs through Belgáchhí and Goálanda. It is to the amount of repairs rendered necessary by the severe floods of last year that I attribute the return of a large excess in the male population of those police circles (*thánás*)." As regards the accuracy of the Census, "the Deputy-Magistrates," writes Mr Wells, "consider that the Census returns under their immediate care are thoroughly reliable, and I concur in thinking them so. As I have shown, the care taken was very great, and I believe the returns are perfectly correct."

The table opposite illustrates the distribution of the population in each Police Circle and Subdivision, with its pressure per square mile, &c. I have reproduced it *verbatim* from the Census Report of 1872:—

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX, RELIGION, AND AGE.—The total population of the Farídpur District amounts to 497,854 males and 514,735 females; total, 1,012,589; proportion of males to total population being 49·2 per cent. The area of the District as given in the Census Report of 1872 is 1496 square miles, the average density of the population being 677 to the square mile. Classified according to age, the Census gives the following results:—Hindus—under twelve years of age, males 67,629, females 54,844; above twelve years of age, males 136,426, females 162,089. Muhammadans—under twelve years of age, males 111,358, females 87,564; above twelve years of age, males 180,917, females 208,460. Christians—under twelve years of age, males 82, females 82; above twelve years of age, males 175, females 124. Other denominations not classified separately—under twelve years of age, males 467, females 461; above twelve years of age, males 800, females 1111. Total of all classes—under twelve years of age, males 179,536, females 142,951; above twelve years of age, males 318,318, females 371,784; grand total of all ages, 1,012,589. The total number of Hindus in the District is 420,988, Muhammadans 588,299, Christians 463, and others of unspecified denominations 2839. The number of insanes is returned at 299, or ·0295 per cent. of the total population; idiots at 69, or ·0068 per cent. of the total popula-

[*Sentence continued after the Table.*]

ABSTRACT OF THE POPULATION, &c., OF EACH SUBDIVISION AND POLICE CIRCLE IN FARÍDPUR DISTRICT, 1872.

Subdivision.	Police Circle.	Area in square miles.	Number of villages, mauzás, or townships.	Number of houses.	Total population.	Averages according to Census Report.				
						Persons per square mile.	Villages, mauzás, or townships per square mile.	Persons per village, mauzá, or township.	Houses per square mile.	Persons per house.
Headquarters Subdivision.	Farídpur,	142	107	13,165	79,251	558	·75	741	92	6·0
	Bhúshná,	136	267	21,296	115,132	846	1·96	431	157	5·4
	Awánpur,	158	257	16,482	102,146	646	1·63	397	104	6·2
	Sadrpur,	97	74	9,852	62,656	646	·76	847	102	6·4
	Deorá,	123	199	16,415	116,531	947	1·62	586	133	7·1
	Maksúdpur,	222	329	18,263	136,069	613	1·48	414	82	7·5
	Gopálganj,	189	148	12,320	97,666	517	·78	660	65	7·9
	Subdivisional total,	1,067	1,381	107,793	709,451	665	1·29	514	101	6·6
Goálanda Subdivision.	Goálanda,	117	229	14,349	89,725	767	1·96	392	123	6·3
	Belgáchhí,	136	308	14,865	87,337	642	2·26	284	109	5·9
	Pángsá,	176	389	20,511	126,076	717	2·21	324	117	6·1
	Subdivisional total,	429	926	49,725	303,138	706	2·16	327	116	6·1
	District total,	1,496	2,307	157,518	1,012,589	677	1·54	439	105	6·4

[*Sentence continued from the page before the Table.*]

tion; deaf and dumb, 314, or ·0310 per cent. of the total population; blind, 659, or ·0651 per cent. of the total population; and lepers, 417, or ·0412 of the total population. I take these figures as given by the Census Report of 1872.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION.—The following paragraphs, showing the occupations of the people, are condensed from the tabular statements appended to the Census Report. The figures, however, must be taken as a rough approximation only, and the classification seems in many respects, perhaps unavoidably, imperfect. I reproduce them, however, as the first organised effort of the kind; and a discriminating eye, while rejecting some of them, will find curious hints as to the occupations of the people.

OCCUPATIONS OF MALES.—CLASS I.—Persons employed under Government, Municipal, or other local authorities:—Government police, 225; rural police, 1932; Covenanted English officers, 3; subordinate executive officers, 5; Public Works officials, 4; Post-office officials, 23; excise officials, 125; clerks, 12; *piyádás* (messengers), 43; others, 45; total of Class I., 2417.

CLASS II.—Professional persons, including professors of religion, education, literature, law, medicine, fine arts, surveying, and engineering:—Hindu priests (*purohits*), 3645; spiritual instructors (*gurus*), 423; astrologers (*áchárjyas*), 22; Muhammadan priests (*mullás*), 68; pilgrim guides (*pandás*), 9; priests of family idols 15; *Khondkárs*, 6; schoolmasters, 212; vernacular teachers (*pandits*), 34; village schoolmasters (*gurumahásays*), 2; Persian teachers (*munshis*), 8; students and scholars, 73; pleaders, 42; law agents (*mukhtárs*), 57; stamp vendors, 20; doctors, 12; Hindu physicians (*kabirájs*), 698; vaccinators, 6; cow-doctors (*gobaidyas*), 2; men-midwives, 205; compounders, 2; circumcisers, 2; musicians, 1102; singers, 139; actors, 4; painters, 57; surveyors or *ámíns*, 5; civil engineers, 5; total of Class II., 6875.

CLASS III.—Persons in service, or performing personal offices:—Personal servants, 4764; cooks, 27; assistant cooks (*masálchís*), 1; barbers, 3593; washermen (*dhobís*), 1476; sweepers (*mihtars*), 20; water-carriers, 4; gardeners, 238; genealogists (*ghataks*), 73; door-keepers (*darwáns*), 75; innkeepers, 1; unspecified, 2758; total of Class III., 13,030.

CLASS IV.—Persons engaged in agriculture and with animals:—Landlords (*zamíndárs*), 458; large leaseholders (*ijárádárs*), 19; holders of rent-free tenures (*lákhirájdárs*), 297; subordinate land-

lords (*tálukdárs*), 4151; cultivators with occupancy rights, 83; ordinary cultivators, 189,279; land-stewards (*gumáshtás*), 444; rent-collectors (*tahsíldárs*), 564; holders of land on military service, or as servants to the *zamíndárs* (*páiks*), 747; rent-collectors in charge of estates (*náibs*), 5; cattle dealers, 30; shepherds, 1; cowherds, 585; elephant drivers (*máhuts*), 1; grooms, 33; grass-cutter, 1; hunters (*shikáris*), 6; total of Class IV., 196,704.

CLASS V.—Persons engaged in commerce and in trade; as in the conveyance of money and goods, in keeping and lending money, and in the sale of goods:—Engineers, 9; engine-drivers, 5; railway stationmaster, 1; clerks, 6; other railway servants, 1; cabmen, 13; carters, 183; bullock-drivers, 38; palanquin bearers, 1979; Musalmán shipmasters (*nakodás*), 9; boatmen, 11,983; boat owners, 291; lascars, 128; warehousemen, (*áratdárs*), 23; weighmen, 53; bankers and *mahájans*, 473; money-changers, 2; money-lenders, 2179; merchants, 181; commission agents and retail sellers (*páikárs*), 105; petty dealers (*bepáris*), 1210; shopkeepers, 12,988; hawkers, 18; brokers or *dalás*, 63; clerks, 53; outdoor clerks (*sarkárs*), 7; vernacular clerks and writers (*muharrirs*), 333; messengers, 1; total of Class V., 32,335.

CLASS VI.—Persons employed in mechanical arts, manufactures, and engineering operations, and in the sale of goods manufactured or prepared for consumption:—Indigo manufacturers, 3; oil manufacturers, 481; contractors, 5; masons *rájmistris*), 80; stone-masons, 3; lime-burners, 58; sawyers, 218; carpenters, 2211; thatchers, 718; well-digger, 1; carriage-builder, 1; boat-builders, 114; blacksmiths, 806; dealers in hardware, 33; *Kánsáris*, 84; tinmen, 2; goldsmiths, 1272; potters, 2528; mat-makers, 222; fan-makers, 5; makers of baskets, 1640; makers of whips, 8; toymakers, 17; beadmakers, 8; *hookah*-maker, 1; garland-makers, 7; shell carvers, 238; cane-workers, 236; cotton carders, 2; cotton spinners, 129; weavers in cotton, 14,723; weavers in wool, 4; weavers in jute, 1; dyers, 2; tailors, 383; shoemakers, 194; cloth vendors, 343; ornament makers, 31; gunny-bag makers, 901; net-makers, 71; thread sellers, 43; wool sellers, 6; stationers, 149; bookbinder, 1; bookseller, 1; sellers of oil, 514; grain sellers, 94; rice sellers, 39; sugar-cane sellers, 4; spice sellers, 12; grain-husker, 1; baker, 1; grain parchers, 4; costermongers, 11; confectioners, 29; sellers of molasses, 429; butchers, 2; fishermen, 132; fish-

mongers, 12,325; milkmen, 1151; spirit sellers, 29; toddy sellers, 340; liquor shopkeepers, 17; tobacco sellers, 28; opium sellers, 4; *ganjá* sellers, 10; *pán* sellers, 1438; betel sellers, 4; salt sellers, 13; sellers of fireworks, 12; firewood sellers, 70; dealers in hides, 359; total of Class VI., 45,056.

CLASS VII.—Miscellaneous persons not classified otherwise:—House owners, 9; pensioner, 1; beggars and paupers, 3603; labourers, 16,871; unemployed, 1815, male children, 179,138; total of Class VII., 201,437; grand total of males, 497,854.

OCCUPATION OF FEMALES.—The following figures with regard to the occupation of females, reproduced from the Census Report, are to be accepted with special caution. Class I., *nil.* Class II., professional persons:—Priestesses, 108; female spiritual guides, 20; midwives, 72; female physicians, 4; musicians, 2; singers, 3; total, 209. Class III., females employed in service:—Personal servants, 1173; *ayahs*, 2; female barbers, 22; washerwomen, 54; female sweepers, 3; prostitutes, 761; total, 2015, Class IV., females employed in agriculture and with animals:—Female landholders, 65; holders of rent-free lands, 38; subordinate landholders (*tálukdárs*), 382; ordinary female cultivators, 2782; dealer in goats, 1; cowherds, 4; total, 3272. Class V., females engaged in commerce and trade:—Boat-owners, 10; money-lenders, 212; shopkeepers, 560; *bepáris*, 6; total, 788. Class VI., females employed in manufactures, and in sale of goods prepared for consumption:—Dealers in pottery, 32; dealers in lime, 4; basket-makers, 11; garland sellers, 19; spinners, 2124; weavers, 126; gunny-bag makers, 76; net-makers, 9; ornament sellers, 8; stationers, 37; rice dealers, 50; dealers in oil, 11; confectioner, 1; grain parchers, 16; grain huskers, 583; sellers of molasses, 2; fishwomen, 216; milk sellers, 71; *pán* sellers, 8; dealers in hides, 3; total, 3407. Class VII., miscellaneous females, not otherwise classed:—House owners, 6; beggars and paupers, 1515; labourers, 493; unemployed, 360,125; female children, 142,905; total, 505,044; grand total of females, 514,735.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—The races inhabiting the District are Hindus and Muhammadans, non-Asiatics, Eurasians, and hill people from West Bengal. According to the Census of 1872, the Hindus numbered 420,988 in the District, and the Muhammadans 588,299. The number of non-Asiatics is returned at 65, viz., English, 42; French, 1; German, 1; Irish, 12; Nor-

wegian, 2; Scotch, 2; Welsh, 3; and American, 2. The Bunás are included among the semi-Hinduised aboriginals. They are immigrants from the hilly Districts of West Bengal, who came to work in the indigo factories. The indigo factories are now closed, and these people betake themselves, some to husbandry, and others to road-making, digging tanks, and all kinds of earth-work. They number 2412 in the District, and are looked down upon by the rest of the inhabitants. The villagers in the north of the District are mostly Musalmáns, and these, as well as those residing immediately south of the Civil Station, are similar in appearance to the Muhammadans met with in other parts of Bengal, stunted and lank specimens of Islám. Towards the south of the District, on the other hand, and amongst the vast swamps on the borders of Bákarganj, the country is almost entirely peopled by Chandáls, or low-caste Hindus, who are a much more muscular race of men than the people in the north. These Chandáls number a million and a half throughout all Lower Bengal, but are most numerous in Faridpur and other Districts of Eastern Bengal. Their number in Faridpur in 1872 was returned at 156,223. They are doubtless one of those aboriginal races who embraced Hinduism in Bengal, and, like the Kaibarttas, are mentioned in the sacred Epics, the "Ramayana," and "Mahábhárata." They are semi-amphibious in their habits, and capable of enduring the extremity of exposure and fatigue. Their superior physical development is attributed, not to their being of a different race, but to their mode of life: inhabiting a river District, and constantly employed in rowing, the muscles of the arms and chest get more developed than in men who pass their days at the plough. From time immemorial the Chandáls have been despised by the upper-class Hindus, and a Brahmán thought himself defiled by even treading upon the shadow cast by the body of a Chandál. A great part of them accordingly turned Musalmáns under the Afghán and Mughul Governments, and the remainder are now endeavouring to push themselves forward to a comparatively respectable position in the Hindu social scale. In the early part of this year (1873) the Chandáls made a general strike in the District, resolving not to serve any body of the upper class, in whatever capacity, unless a better position among the Hindu castes than what they at present occupy was given to them. A further reference to the Chandáls will be found in an extract from a Report by

the Collector on a previous page, where I was treating of the configuration and general aspects of the District.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.—There is scarcely any immigration into, and no emigration from, Farídpur. The Bunás above mentioned appear to have permanently settled in the District, otherwise they would have returned to their original country after the indigo factories were closed. They do not amalgamate with the rest of the inhabitants, although they live in the same towns and villages with them. They build their houses close together, but apart from those of the other villagers. Many persons annually leave their homes in the District, and proceed to Calcutta and elsewhere as boatmen, or in other capacities, but return to their homes in nearly every instance. Many also leave the District during the harvest season as reapers, principally proceeding to Bákarganj.

CASTES.—The following is a list of the different castes in the District, arranged as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local esteem, and showing their occupations, numbers as ascertained by the Census of 1872, and the comparative degree of wealth of each:—(1) Bráhman; priests, religious preceptors, Government servants, &c.; number in Farídpur in 1872, 23,294. (2) Kshattriya; it is believed that there is no pure Kshattriya of the Sanskrit warrior caste existing at the present day, but 36 individuals have been returned as Kshattriyas in the Farídpur District, though only as a class of up-country traders, who lay a local claim to this rank. (3) Baidya; hereditary physicians, but chiefly now employed in Government and private service, &c.; number in 1872, 2032. (4) Káyasth; writers and clerks, but many are now landed proprietors, and others husbandmen; number in 1872, 57,026. (5) Chhatri or Rájput, another caste claiming to be Kshattriyas; peons, police constables, &c.; number in 1872, 901. (6) Gandha Banik, traders, 3038 in number. (7) Kámár, blacksmiths and workers in metal, 4758 in number. (8) Kumár, potters, 8196 in number. (9) Ágarwálá and Márwárí, up-country traders, 143 in number. (10) Águrí, cultivators, 1 in the District. (11) Támbulí or Támlí, traders, 235 in number. (12) Sadgop, cultivators, 693 in number. (13) Súdra, cultivators, 86 in number. (14) Kurmí, an up-country cultivating caste, 328 in number. (15) Tilí, oil-pressers and oil-sellers, also employed in service, trade, and husbandry, 7640 in number. (16) Málí or Málákar, dealers in flowers, pith, or *solá*,

1347 in number. (17) Kánsárí, makers of copper, brass, and bell-metal utensils, 3 in number. (18) Sánkhárí, dealers in shells and shell ornaments, few in number, and not returned in the Census Report. (19) Nápit, barbers, 12,685 in number. (20) Vaishnavs, followers of Vishnu, 5204 in number. (21) Bárui, cultivators of *pán*, 6120 in number. (22) Kaibartta, landed proprietors and cultivators, 13,649 in number. (23) Garerí, an up-country pastoral caste, 1 in number. (24) Madak or Mayrá, sweetmeat makers, 897 in number. (25) Gop or Goálá, milkmen and cattle-keepers, 2912 in number. (26) Subarna Banik, traders, bankers, and jewellers, 2280 in number. (27) Sekerá or Swarnakár, gold and silver smiths, 701 in number. (28) Sutradhar or Chhutár, carpenters, 5086 in number. (29) Sháhá or Surí, traders, landholders, husbandmen, &c., 26,677 in number. (30) Páitatá, manufacturers of fine mats (*páti*), not given in the Census Report. (31) Kalu, oil-pressers and oil-sellers, 178 in number. (32) Tántí, weavers, 3410 in number. (33) Jogí, weavers, 1698 in number. (34) Chunárí, lime-burners, 242 in number. (35) Patiál, labourers, 330 in number. (36) Jáliá, fishermen, 20,460 in number. (37) Kárál, sellers of fish, few in number, and not returned in the Census Report. (38) Karní, weavers, very few in number, and not returned in the Census. (39) Málá, fishermen and boatmen, 5466 in number. (40) Mánjhí, boatmen, 567 in number. (41) Pod, fishermen, 73 in number. (42) Tior, fishermen, 866 in number. (43) Purá, fish and vegetable sellers, 508 in number. (44) Báití, mat-makers, 891 in number. (45) Behárá and Duliyá, palanquin bearers, 2551 in number. (46) Dhanuk, personal servants, 181 in number. (47) Bágdí, labourers and cultivators, 1460 in number. (48) Pátní, ferrymen and boatmen, 1369 in number. (49) Koerí, traders and agriculturists, 1516 in number. (50) Chásá Dhobá, agriculturists, 561 in number. (51) Dhobá, washermen, 4132 in number. (52) Kacháru, makers of lac ornaments, very few in number, and not returned in the Census Report. (53) Chandál, agriculturists and boatmen, 156,223 in number. (54) Kapáli, manufacturers of gunny cloth, and agriculturists, 9359 in number. (55) Báuti, manufacturers of lime from shells, very few in number, and not mentioned separately in the Census Report. (56) Káhár, palanquin bearers, 1910 in number. (57) Muchí and Chámár, dealers in hides, and shoemakers, 3721 in number. (58) Pásí, toddy sellers, 25 in number. (59) Bind, labourers, 151 in number. (60) Chain,

labourers, 436 in number. (61) Dom, basket-makers and fishermen, 589 in number. (62) Dosadh, labourers, 4 in number. (63) Karangá, labourers, 18 in number. (64) Rájbansí, fishermen, 3862 in number. (65) Mál, snake-charmers, 957 in number. (66) Málo, 620 in number. (67) Hárí, swine-keepers, 372 in number. (68) Káorá, swine-keepers, 322 in number. (69) Bhuimálí, menial servants, 1836 in number. (70) Mihtar, sweepers, 1134 in number. (71) Bediyá, jugglers and thieves, 4 in number; and (72) Buná, labourers, 2412 in number.

The Muhammadans of Faríd pur follow various occupations, but the greater portion of them are engaged in husbandry; the rest are traders, manufacturers of oil, weavers, boatmen, palanquin bearers, &c. The Collector estimates that of the total number of Musulmáns in Faríd pur, ten sixteenths are poor, four sixteenths in easy circumstances, and the remaining two sixteenths rich. The higher and well-off class is respected, but the lower ranks are despised. No information can be given as to the immigration or first settlement of castes or races in the District, as, with the exception of the Buná labourers imported from Bánkurá, Bírbhúm, and Midnapur, and the Chandáls who came from Dacca, all the castes mentioned above have inhabited the District from time immemorial. The Collector reports that the Bráhman or priestly caste seems to have declined very considerably of recent years from their former rank and numbers. This is stated to be owing in a great measure to the increase in marriage expenses. Marriage has become a most expensive ceremony among the Faríd pur Bráhmans, and a father will not give his daughter in marriage unless he receives from his future son-in-law a sum varying from £70 to £100 as a present, or rather as a price, for his daughter. Many Bráhmans in consequence die without marrying, and their numbers are thus said to be gradually decreasing. The spread of English education also may be considered as having contributed to the decline of Bráhmanical influence. No predatory clans or castes exist within the District.

Religious Division of the People.—The inhabitants of Faríd pur may be divided into four religious classes, viz., Musalmáns, Hindus, Bráhma Samáj followers, and Christians. According to Colonel Gastrell's Survey Report, the Muhammadans numbered at that time (about 1865) 227,858, and the Hindus 182,137 souls. As already stated, the population of the District in 1872 was ascertained by a regular Census to amount to 1,012,589—497,854 males

and 514,735 females, the proportion of males being 49·2 per cent. The Hindu population numbers 204,055 males and 216,933 females —total, 420,988, and thus form 41·6 per cent. of the whole. The Muhammadan population consists of 292,275 males and 296,024 females, making a total of 588,299, or 58·1 per cent. of the whole inhabitants. The Christian population of Faridpur consists of 257 males and 206 females; total, 463, or ·04 per cent. of the population. The remainder of the population, not separately classified in the Census Report, consists of 1267 males and 1572 females—total, 2839, or say 0·3 per cent. of the whole inhabitants. The Collector thinks that the present number of Bráhma Samáj followers does not exceed thirty or forty; they are not returned separately in the Census Report. There is only one native Christian community in the District, situated in the village of Kálígrám on the Jiharpur marsh. The converts are very few in number, and are chiefly made from the Chandál caste. They are poor in circumstances, and are looked down upon by the rest of the inhabitants. At the Civil Station of Faridpur there is a branch of the South Australian Baptist Mission, with about twenty native followers. Deducting 84 for the European and Eurasian community, the result leaves a total native Christian population in Faridpur District of 379 souls. Christianity appears to make its principal settlement among the rural population, and the Bráhma Samáj in the towns. The Bráhma Samáj at Faridpur was established in December 1857 with ten followers, and services were held every Saturday evening in a house placed at the disposal of the Samáj by one of the members. Since the first year of its establishment, an anniversary Samáj is held every year, which is largely attended, not only by the Bráhmas themselves, but also by many of the orthodox Hindus at the Station. During the hot season of the year, service is held every Sunday morning. The Bráhma missionaries visit Faridpur from time to time, and deliver religious lectures in the hall of the Society.

THE MUHAMMADAN RELIGION does not appear to be making any further progress among the people. The Musalmáns are more numerous in the District than the Hindus, but the Collector reports that he can find no historical explanation of this circumstance. It is a current opinion that during the sovereignty of the Muhammadans, many Hindu families of the District, both high and low, were forcibly converted to Islám. Many Musalmáns are met with

in the District bearing the surname of *Thákur*, which is a Bráhmanical designation, and this leads the Collector to think that the popular opinion may not be without foundation. The Muhammadans of Faríḍpur are divided into Shiáhs and Sunís. Among the latter, a reformed sect called Faráizís has sprung up within the last forty-five years, and are a numerous and powerful body in the District. These Faráizís have the character of being stricter in their morals than other Musalmáns, but are intolerant and bigoted; and their open contempt for the religious opinions of others has been the cause of frequent affrays and disturbances, which have brought them under the notice of the authorities. The present Collector of the District, however, states that the death of Dudú Miyán, their late leader, has been a deathblow to their prestige and fanaticism. The following description of the origin of this sect is quoted from page 36 of Colonel Gastrell's Report:—"The founder of the sect of Faráizís, named Hájí Sharitullá, was born in the old village of Daulatpur, in the Police Circle of Sibchar, District Faríḍpur. He was possessed of a small estate, the greater portion of which, together with the village of his birth, has long since been cut away by the encroachments of the Padmá or Ganges. Objecting to the practice obtaining generally amongst the Musalmáns, of employing only certain persons to perform the ceremony of circumcision in families, and also to the habit of squandering large sums of money at marriage festivals, he, about the age of thirty-two, promulgated his new ideas on these subjects, and soon obtained a few devoted followers. These rapidly increased in number; and the greater part of the Muhammadans of the District, and many in the neighbouring Districts, have now joined the sect. On the Hájí's death, his followers assembled, and by common consent named his son, Dudú Miyán, as head of the sect. This man is said to have on several occasions abused the trust placed in him by his followers, and to have purchased an estate with the money placed in his hands for religious purposes. He then became a great tyrant, and complaints against him were numerous. On one of these he was tried, convicted, and imprisoned. In 1857 he was removed to Calcutta, and kept in custody there until the close of the mutiny of that year. On his return to the District, he was cleverly captured to answer another charge preferred against him by one of the Faríḍpur Police Inspectors, who, disguising himself and taking some policemen with him, presented himself before Dudú Miyán, and represented to him

that they all desired to join the sect of the Faráizís. Dudú, on hearing this, and suspecting nothing, left his hiding-place with them, was immediately captured, put on board a boat which the Inspector had in waiting, was taken to Faridpur, and lodged safely in jail. When again released, he left the District, then too hot to hold him, and it is believed sought refuge in Dacca, where in 1861 he was said to be very ill. He is since dead." There is also a sect of Faráizís called Rafiádís, but they are not numerous in Faridpur. A few followers are to be found in Khardiá, Tiljurí, and Durgápur. Their principles are the same as those of the Wahábí sect of Muhammadans. No new sects of Muhammadans or Hindus are springing up at the present day.

Distribution of the People into Town and Country.—The Census Report of 1872 thus classifies the towns and villages:—There are 808 villages containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 826 with from two to five hundred inhabitants; 479 with from five hundred to one thousand inhabitants; 166 small towns with from one to two thousand; 21 towns from two to three thousand; 5 from three to five thousand; and 2 from five to ten thousand. The two towns containing a population of upwards of five thousand souls are the Municipalities of Faridpur and Sayyidpur. The principal towns, trading marts, and places of commerce in Faridpur are—(1) Bhángá, on the Kumár, situated in 23° 23′ 16″ lat. and 90° 0′ 45″ long., famous for importing rice, paddy, twist, chilies, salt, *khesárí*, mustard, and piece goods, and for exporting jute, molasses, and sugar. Its population in 1870 was estimated at about 1000. (2) Gopálganj, on the Madhumatí, situated in 23° 0′ 22″ lat. and 89° 52′ 15″ long., famous for jute, rice, salt, clarified butter, and the manufacture of mats of very fine quality. Its population in 1870 was estimated at about 2000. (3) Boálmárí, on the Barásiá river, in 23° 23′ 0″ lat. and 89° 48′ 30″ long., is remarkable for rice, piece goods, country cloth, mule twist, country yams, and tobacco; estimated population about 1000. (4) Sayyidpur, on the same river, situated in 23° 25′ 0″ lat. and 89° 43′ 45″ long., carries on an import trade in cotton, spices, iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal utensils; estimated population about 2000. (5) Madhukhálí, on the Chandná, carries on a trade chiefly in tobacco and salt; estimated population about 1500. (6) Kámárkhálí, on the same river, in 23° 51′ 30″ lat. and 89° 17′ 45″ long., is famous as an emporium for rice, mustard, and *khesárí*; estimated population about 1000. (7)

Jamálpur, on the Chandná, situated in 23° 35′ 30″ lat. and 89° 38′ 45″ long., is famous for cultivation of sugar-cane, and the manufacture of sugar and molasses; estimated population about 500. (8) Kanáipur, on the Kumár, situated in 23° 32′ 30″ lat. and 89° 49′ 0″ long., manufactures and trades in sugar and molasses; estimated population about 800. (9) Betangá, on the Chandná, situated in 23° 0′ 20″ lat. and 89° 57′ 15″ long., carries on an extensive trade in rice and pulses; estimated population about 500. (10) Goálanda, on the Padmá, situated in 23° 50′ 22″ lat. and 89° 47′ 0″ long., is famous for its trade in rice, paddy, and salt; estimated population about 1000. This place is rapidly rising in importance as a seat of commerce since the extension to it of the Eastern Bengal Railway. It has now also become the point of arrival and departure of the large Assam river steamers. (11) Sátair, near Sayyidpur, is celebrated for its fine Sítalpátí mats. This village is unrivalled for delicacy of manufacture of these fine mats. Some are made of such exquisite workmanship that a mat of the dimensions of six feet by four is sold for £15 and upwards. The population of the village is estimated at about 500. The places in the District important as being the seats of fairs are the following:—A fair is held at Sátair or Dhobághátá on the last day of the Hindu month of Fálgun, falling within the English month of March, where articles of country produce are brought for sale. The fair lasts four or five days, and is held in honour of an old mosque which enjoys a great repute as a place of peculiar sanctity by pious Muhammadans. At Dhanorá, near the police station of Maksúdpur, a fair is held on the last day of Chaitra, falling within our month of April, and is chiefly remarkable for the number of horses brought for sale; country produce is also disposed of. On the bank of *bil* Jhál Dángá, near Madhurdiá, a fair is held in March or April, and at which about fifteen thousand people assemble to bathe in the waters of the *bil*. The fair lasts only one day, and property worth about £300 is disposed of. At Dhuldí and Gajaná fairs are held on the occasion of the bathing festival of Gangá-snán. These fairs appear to be held principally for the benefit of the pilgrims; they only last a single day, and are not very largely attended. At the town of Farídpur during the first week in January an agricultural exhibition is held, where prizes for live stock and all descriptions of agricultural produce are competed for. This institution was first established in 1864, and an exhibition has been held every year

since then, with varying success. Latterly it has much increased in importance, both as to the amount of the sums subscribed to it, and the area over which its influence extends. A very considerable impetus has been given to the manufacturers and agriculturists of the District by this very useful institution. The Exhibition of 1870 lasted for eight days, and there was considerable competition for nearly all the products, and especially so with regard to rice. The following paragraph, extracted from the Committee's Report of the Exhibition, shows the interest taken by the people themselves in the Exhibition:—"4th January.—This day was fixed for the exhibition of rice. Early in the morning swarms of people literally poured into the Exhibition ground with various samples of rice in basketsful. Numerous spectators also pressed in, exhibiting the very great interest people have in the cultivation of this, the staple product of the country. The cultivation of rice engrosses the attention of the people *en masse*. The object of the Exhibition, therefore, has been, we are perfectly convinced, realised, as far as this department of agriculture is concerned. The undoubtedly great interest which everybody, both exhibitors and spectators, took in this day's exhibition, was very remarkable. Various specimens of *áman* and *áus* rice were exhibited, and the competition was so keen that the whole day and part of the night passed in selecting merely a number of the best sorts of *áman* exhibited for more careful examination on the day following. Of the *áman* rice there were 270 exhibitors and 49 species; of *áus*, 141 exhibitors and 28 species." The prizes varied in amount from £1, 4s. to 6d. There were altogether 1042 exhibitors, and the amount expended in prizes for products, live stock, &c., amounted to £50, 9s. 3d.

There are four places in the District held sacred specially for pilgrimage:—first, a temple sacred to Hari at Noliá near Jamálpur; second, at Muklobhá, a temple dedicated to Básudeb, a name for Krishna; third, a tree held sacred in the name of Kusalnáth, another designation of Siva, at Dulardángá, within the police circle of Talmá; and fourth, at Maddapur, within the Belgáchhí police circle, there is a large *pákur* tree dedicated to Siva, and called Ráj Rájeswar. All these places have lost much of their importance of late years; but at the latter two spots, large parties proceed every Friday and Saturday to fulfil a vow of sacrifice, by a goat or kid to the God of Destruction. There are one or two neglected

mosques in the District; one at Sátair, and another at Khábáspur, both reputed as places of sanctity. No town or village in Faríd pur is celebrated as being the scene of any important historical event. With regard to the comparative importance of the town and rural population, as shown by the returns in the Collectorate and Magisterial Offices of the classes of the people who furnish the largest proportion of the work of Administration, the Collector of the District states, that from inquiries instituted by him, he is of opinion that the richer portion of the inhabitants, such as the landlords, larger leaseholders, merchants and traders, resort to the Civil and Collector's Courts more frequently than the rural or cultivating class of the population. But the lower agricultural classes, particularly the Muhammadans, seem to furnish the greater share of the work of the Criminal Courts; although in cases of riot it is frequently the landlords or their agents who are at the bottom of the disturbance.

There are two MUNICIPALITIES in the District; one at the Civil Station of Faríd pur, and the other at the town of Sayyidpur. The following is a return of the local Municipal Revenue and Expenditure in 1869-70, together with the number of houses in each:—Faríd pur Municipality—Revenue in 1869-70, £233, 12s. 5½d.; balance in hand from previous year, £139, 10s. 5½d.; total, £373, 2s. 11d.; expenditure in 1868-69, £295, 19s. 8½d.; number of taxed houses within the Municipality, 1392. Gross municipal income in 1872, £319, 3s. 7½d.; municipal expenditure, £213, 19s. 2d.; rate of municipal taxation, 8⅞d. per head of the population. The population of the town, as ascertained by the Census of 1872: Hindus, males, 2427; females, 1885; total, 4312. Muhammadans, males, 2283; females, 1960; total, 4243. Christians, males, 16; females, 11; total, 27. Others, males, 3; females, 8; total, 11. Total of all denominations, males, 4729; females, 3864; grand total, 8593. Sayyidpur Municipality—Revenue in 1868-69, £102, 15s. 1¾d.; balance in hand from previous year, £84, 15s. 3d.; total, £187, 10s. 4¾d.; expenditure in 1868-69, £103, 7s. 8d.; number of houses taxed within the Municipality, 854. Municipal income in 1872, £91, 4s. 9d.; expenditure, £136, 3s. 2d.; rate of taxation, 3⅜d. per head of the population. Population as ascertained in 1872: Hindus, males, 1440; females, 1550; total, 2990; Muhammadans, males, 1459; females, 1718; total, 3177. Others, males, 66; females, 91; total, 157. Total of all denominations, males, 2965; females, 3359; grand total, 6324. The Collector of the District reports that there

is a perceptibly increasing inclination on the part of the people to gather into towns, for the purpose of advantageously carrying on commercial pursuits, but they seldom settle there permanently. The Hindus have a profound veneration for their ancestral places of abode, and, however ill situated these places may be, either from a sanitary point of view or for trading purposes, nothing short of starvation or other sheer compulsion is sufficient to make them exchange their dwellings for places more healthy and better situated for commerce. The people in the District, therefore, do not appear to be tending towards permanent city life.

MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.—The impetus which has of late years been given to tillage, with the increased price of rice and other articles, has materially contributed to better the condition of the people. The cultivating classes, who form the great mass of the population, are visibly better off than in former years, and they are gradually acquiring a taste for luxuries. The middle class of people, however, who live on fixed salaries, do not fare so well. The increased price of provisions has straitened their circumstances, so that they are now said to live from hand to mouth. A waist-cloth (*dhuti*), and a cotton sheet or shawl (*chádar*), and occasionally a sort of loose coat (*pirán*), form the ordinary dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper; that of an average husbandman consists merely of a waist-cloth and cotton shawl. A well-to-do shopkeeper has generally five huts in his homestead, all built within one enclosure—one for himself and his own family to live in, one for the other members of the household, one for cooking purposes, one for his cattle, and one for husking paddy and pulses. The house he lives in, and in the broad verandah of which he generally receives visitors, is substantially built, and usually costs between £30 and £40 to construct. An ordinary well-off husbandman has also the same number of houses, but they are not so costly. The building materials used by both classes are the same, differing only in quality. All the houses, with the exception of the few which are built of masonry, are constructed of bamboo, straw, jute, mats, wood, and canes. The furniture of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of a large chest (*sinduk*), in which he keeps his valuables, three or four cane stools, two or three wooden platforms for sleeping on (*taktposh*), and one or two wooden benches for seats. An ordinary husbandman has no furniture beyond a few mats for sitting or sleeping on. The following is an estimate of the monthly expenses of a middling-sized household of a well-to-do shopkeeper, consisting of five members:—Rice,

10s.; pulses, 2s.; vegetables, 2s.; fish, 4s.; milk, 4s.; fruit, 1s.; sugar and molasses, 2s.; oil, 4s.; salt, 1s.; spices, 9d.; fuel, 2s.; sweet preparations of rice, such as *muri* and *murki*, 1s.; tobacco, *pán*, and betel-nut, 2s.; total monthly expenses, £1, 15s. 9d. The estimate for the same-sized family of an average husbandman is as follows:—Rice, 8s.; pulses, 1s.; fish, 6d.; vegetables, 6d.; sugar, 3d.; oil, 1s.; salt, 6d.; spices, 4½d.; *muri*, 1s.; tobacco, *pán*, and betel-nut, 1s.; total, 14s. 1½d. per month. Animal food is occasionally eaten by those who can afford it. A Hindu, of course, will never touch beef, and confines himself to the flesh of sheep or goats, after they have been sacrificed to some deity. Hindus also occasionally eat ducks and ducks' eggs. A Muhammadan will eat almost all kinds of ordinary animal food, except pork, which is only eaten by the very lowest classes of Hindus. The use of meat in any shape as an article of food is, however, very exceptional. It is only used as a luxury on great occasions, and in no way enters into the ordinary diet of any class of the people. I have referred to fish as an article of food on a previous page. The above estimate of cost, moreover, does not represent the actual expenses of a cultivator's household, but rather what he would have to pay if he purchased all his requisites. Almost all families grow their own rice, and sufficient vegetables for their own consumption; and often, when their day's field-work is over, they may be seen angling in the rivers, or trapping fish in the numerous swamps and marshes. They very seldom buy fuel, but procure it from the jungle.

AGRICULTURAL.—Rice forms the staple product of Farídpur; namely, *áman*, or winter rice; *áus*, or autumn rice; *boro*, or rice grown in deep water; and *ráidá* rice. Of these four, the first two are more generally cultivated, and form the chief staple food of the District, but the latter are almost always consumed by the peasant who raises them. The *áus* and *áman* rice are sown broadcast, the seeds being generally intermixed, on lands neither very high, nor yet too low. Where the *áus* rice is separately cultivated, however, it is generally planted in pretty high and dry ground in rotation to a crop of sugar-cane. The *áman* rice grows luxuriantly in rather low grounds where the rain-water collects. Some of the best qualities of *áman* rice are transplanted from nurseries into carefully prepared land, which has received repeated ploughings early in the rains, until the whole field is worked into knee-deep mud. All the superior kinds of rice are

derived from the *roá* or transplanted crop. The husbandman generally keeps this rice for sale, and uses the coarser varieties for his own consumption. In lands where the *áus* and *áman* are sown intermixed, the former can easily be reaped if the water rises slowly, but in the event of a sudden or rapid rise, would be destroyed. The *áman* rice is of two genera, the *baran* and *chhotná*, each comprising several varieties. Of these species, the former is regarded by the Hindus as sacred, but the latter is not. A Sanskrit verse (*sloka*) is quoted from the *Sástras*, containing a precept to avoid the use of *chhotná* rice, on account of its ripening before the setting in of the cold weather. The following is a list of the different sub-species of *áman* and *áus*, as well as those of the *boro* and *ráidá* rice, together with their seasons of sowing and reaping, &c., and the description of ground in which it is planted. The names marked with asterisks are varieties of rice not indigenous to the District, but the cultivation of which has been introduced from other parts of the country of late years. The twenty-three principal varieties of *baran áman* rice are—(1) *Chhatra bhog;** (2) *Dudhmani;** (3) *Lepá;* (4) *Mándráji* (Madras);* (5) *Gawá-rájal;** (6) *Gházi bhog;* (7) *Pitráj;* (8) *Kách kalam;** (9) *Jhul;* (10) *Sádá nalaj;* (11) *Sítá Lakshmiyá;* (12) *Bhojan karpur;* (13) *Mahishkándi;* (14) *Lál bádal;** (15) *Nárikel bádá;* (16) *Khaiyá mugri;* (17) *Bhágráil;* (18) *Muktáhár;* (19) *Dal-kachu;* (20) *Phul áman;* (21) *Báliá bet;* (22) *Lakshmi hidá;* (23) *Baerá.* The whole of these varieties are sown broadcast in marshy lands in Chaitra and Baisákh (March, April, and May), and reaped in Agraháyan and Paush (November, December, and January.) The impure *Chhotná áman* rice consists of the following thirteen varieties—(1) *Hariákáti;* (2) *Katiá lepá;** (3) *Sonádighá;* (4) *Khándi;* (5) *Madhusáil;* (6) *Dhaládígha;* (7) *Kánkuá;* (8) *Ghor bág;** (9) *Parpuri;* (10) *Básiráj;* (11) *Jhungásáil;* (12) *Mál bhog;* (13) *Hidá.* These thirteen varieties are sown broadcast in moist lands, in the months of Chaitra and Baisákh (March, April, and May), and reaped in Kártik (October and November.) The *áus* species of rice consists of twenty-seven different varieties, as follow:—(1) *Binna-phul;** (2) *Lohásalá;** (3) *Kautuk-mani;** (4) *Kálijirá;* (5) *Dasnagur;** (6) *Samudraphená;* (7) *Báigunbichi;* (8) *Bákui;* (9) *Bailán.* These varieties are sown broadcast on low lands in the months of Chaitra and Baisákh (March, April, and May), and are reaped in Áshár and Srában (June, July, and August). (10) *Párangi*, sown broad-

cast on low lands in Chaitra (March and April), and reaped in Jaishthya and Áshár (May, June, and July); (11) *Mallikā;* (12) *Nimtail;** (13) *Lakshmipurá;* (14) *Ghikarpur;* (15) *Pipráil;* (16) *Mánik-mandal.** These varieties are sown broadcast on low lands in March, April, and May, and reaped in June, July, and August. (17) *Shátiá,* sown broadcast in low lands in April and May, and reaped in June and July. (18) *Pájrá;* (19) *Sada;* (20) *Kedárchak;* (21) *Káojurí;* (22) *Bániábatar.** These varieties are sown broadcast on low lands in March, April, and May, and reaped in June, July, and August. (23) *Kumrail;* (24) *Kachárnárí.* These are sown both on high and low lands broadcast, but the seasons for sowing and reaping are the same as those given before. (25) *Sonághází;* (26) *Pakshiráj parángí;* grown on high and dry lands, but sown and reaped in the same seasons as above; (27) *Patnáigareswar;* sown broadcast on low lands in the same seasons as above. *Boro* rice consists of the following five varieties, which are grown in marshy lands and transplanted; they are all sown in Kártik and Agraháyan (October, November, and December), and harvested in Chaitra and Baisákh (March, April, and May)—(1) *Batar-páij;* (2) *Kaijor;* (3) *Sonár-gáijá;* (4) *Sáilkati;* (5) *Kaljágli.* The *ráidá* rice, which consists of four varieties, is sown and reaped at the same seasons as the *boro* rice. It is also transplanted, and grown in the same description of marshy soil as the *boro*—(1) *Dhákái;* (2) *Pipri;* (3) *Amaniá;* (4) *Desal.*

The following remarks regarding the mode of cultivation, method of husking, together with the various preparations made from rice, are condensed from Dr Basu's Report, before alluded to. As already mentioned, *áman* and *áus* rice are frequently sown together in the same fields during the early rains in March and April, but never later than the 10th May, in places that are annually flooded. They grow rapidly with the rise of the water on the inundated lands, the stem sometimes reaching fifteen feet or upwards in length, according to the depth of water in places where it grows. The *áus* crop being reaped first in June, July, or August, the pruning which the *áman* thereby necessarily undergoes, instead of doing any injury to the crop, rather improves it, as the shoots become more numerous and stronger after this cropping. It should be here stated that although the fields are very carefully weeded both before and during the rains, it is impossible to rid them of a species of wild grass which ripens almost at the same time with the *áus;* hence

the *áus* paddy is seldom free from the seeds of this grass. Indeed, this is so generally the case, that the presence of these wild seeds is regarded as a sure indication of *áus* rice. The *áman* rice, which is gathered later, and is sometimes also grown by itself in separate and distinct fields, is always free from these seeds. The *áman* rice is generally reaped in November or December, but there is an early species, *áswiní*, which is harvested in the Hindu month of that name, corresponding to the English September. In the same way, one early variety of *áus* ripens and is cut at the end of May. The other two kinds of rice, *boro* and *roá* (transplanted *áman*), are cultivated altogether on a different system. The *boro* is planted in the low beds of marshes and swamps, or on the borders of shallow receding rivers, such as the lowest parts of *chars*, *koals*, and *lcp chars*, as they are locally called. The seed is sown in nurseries in October or November, transplanted in January or February, and reaped in May or June. The *roá*, or transplanted *áman*, is grown on comparatively high lands, which are seldom or never submerged during the rains. The plants are raised in nurseries in May or June, transplanted in June or July, and reaped in November or December. The finer varieties of rice are obtained from the *roá* crop, and the next quality from the ordinary *áman*. Superior rice is seldom obtained from the *boro* crop, and never from the *áus*. Besides the defect of the *áus* rice already pointed out—namely, its admixture with grass seeds—there are others which render it a very inferior and undesirable article of food. The grain is coarse, never wholly free from a layer of reddish or brownish colouring matter when husked; has a tendency to clot together when boiling; and has scarcely any taste. Ordinary *áman*, although generally also coarse grained, is free from these objections, and more agreeable to the palate. *Boro* rice is generally coarse and heavy, and less sweet than *áman*, but superior in every respect to *áus*.

All the rice sown in the high lands and in shallow water, when ripe, is cut close to the ground, so as to leave as little stubble as possible, and to save all the straw for the cattle. In deep water, however, only the ears are cut off; the stems remain in the fields till the water subsides, when it is either burnt for manure, or collected for household fuel, or for thatching purposes. The different stages of rice cultivation are as follows:—The seed is known as *bíj*; when the seed germinates it is called *gajáu*; when it sprouts, *ankur*; the young plant, *chárá*; the young flower stock, *káinchghor*; the young

plant a little older, *thor;* the flowering plant, *phulán;* when the ear begins to form, *mohar átkán;* the young paddy in the milky stage, *dudholo dhán;* imperfectly matured paddy, *máchhbángo dhán;* ripe paddy, *páká dhán;* paddy when cut and trodden out, *dhán;* husked rice, *chául.*

HUSKING.—The process of husking is very simple. It is generally done either by a rude instrument called a *dhenki,* worked by a pedal, or by means of a wooden mortar and pestle (*ukli*). The *dhenki* is also worked on the principle of a pestle and mortar, the difference being that the pestle is fixed on a lever and worked by the foot, the long end of the lever being towards the mortar, which consists of a wooden vessel let into the ground or floor. Preparatory to husking, the paddy is either dried in the sun, the rice husked by this process being known as *átap,* or is first boiled and afterwards sun-dried. The rice obtained by the latter process is called *siddha* or *ushná,* and the husking is easier performed than from paddy merely dried in the sun. The difference in the mode of preparation is said to cause a difference in the quality of the rice. The *átap,* or paddy simply dried in the sun before husking, yields a lighter grain, sweeter and more digestible. It is, however, difficult to separate from the outer covering, and the percentage of loss from broken rice and rice dust is very large. The *siddha* or *ushná* rice, on the other hand, is a heavy and compact grain, comparatively more difficult of digestion, and takes more time in boiling. The finer sorts of *átap* rice are known as *Gobind bhog, chini sakkar,* and *kálijírá;* and the commoner kinds of *siddha* rice as *bálám* and *chaplás.* All the fine rice, as a general rule, is sold off in the bázár by the cultivators—not only as fetching high prices wherewith to provide for his other comforts, but as unsuitable for home consumption. It is a well-known fact that the labouring classes would not use them, even if they were equally cheap with the other kinds. The servants in the native families in the interior, who are fed at their master's board, would prefer a dish of coarse rice to one of a superior variety, of which latter they say they would require twice the usual number of meals. The greater portion of the coarse rice raised in the District is locally consumed by the agricultural and labouring classes. The *áus* crop, which comes in at a time when the cultivator's previous store of provisions is nearly exhausted, is almost entirely reserved for home consumption. There is, consequently, very little demand for this rice in the market, except among labourers who have no cultivation of their own.

Boiled Rice as Food.—In cooking rice, it should be so boiled that the whole grain becomes uniformly soft, and that no central hardness, or *máj*, remains. Old rice, besides being more wholesome than new, and less difficult of digestion, yields a greater bulk by boiling. Boiled rice is consumed either when quite fresh (*garam bhát*), or more or less stale (*thándá* or *bási bhát*). The latter, again, is used in three forms, namely, *karkara*, or simple cold rice, *parishti*, or boiled rice afterwards steeped in fresh cold water, and *pánțá bhát*, the same as the foregoing, but steeped in water for a longer time. The *karkara* is usually what is left of the evening meal, and is eaten the following morning; it can only be preserved wholesome in the cold weather. In other weather, boiled rice, in order to be kept for subsequent use, has to be steeped in water. There is very little difference between the two forms of steeped rice. That which has been steeped in water for a short time, say not more than six hours, and is eaten when the saccharine matter is being formed in the rice by the decomposition of the starch, is called *parishti*; that which has been longer in water, and when, after the formation of the greatest quantity of sugar, the process of fermentation has commenced, as evinced by the slightly acid taste of the rice, is called *pánțá bhát*.

The water in which this rice has been steeped forms an agreeable and cooling drink, known as *ámáni*. It is not easy to fix precisely the quantity of rice regularly consumed by any one individual, as the seasons of the year affect the amount. In the spring and summer, when an abundant supply of fruit is obtained, the ordinary meals are reduced, both in number and quantity. Again, the work of the agriculturist is not uniform throughout the year. During the rains, with the exception of occasional visits paid to his fields for weeding and reaping the *áus* crop, he leads a comparatively easy life, unless he hires himself out for other work, say as a boatman or day-labourer. This cessation of toil also influences the consumption of food. Taking all things into consideration, Dr Basu estimates the average quantity of rice consumed by an adult labourer at $1\frac{7}{8}$ lb. daily, and that by a man in a higher rank of life, who has a greater variety of food, at from $1\frac{3}{8}$ lb. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. daily.

Preparations of Rice.—The following are the chief preparations of rice made and sold in Farídpur District, condensed from Dr Basu's Report, before alluded to:—

(1.) *Khai* is made from paddy by roasting it on heated sand. The sudden exposure to heat so distends the grain as to make it burst its

husk; it is then rubbed on a sieve with the hand to remove the fragments of broken husk. It is a very light article of food, and prescribed by native physicians as a low diet, both in its ordinary form, as well as in that called *manda*, prepared by boiling it to the consistence of pulp in water, a little sugar and milk being sometimes added. *Khai* enters into the composition of a good many native sweetmeats, and is mixed with fresh molasses or sugar-cane juice, and made into balls or cakes. It is often also eaten mixed with milk.

Rice is not the only grain from which this substance is prepared. The indian-corn, seeds of several species of water-lily, and other light farinaceous seeds, may be similarly treated, and also a kind of wild paddy called *báni dhán*, which is extensively consumed in this form. Ordinary *khai* sells in Farídpur District at a fraction over a penny a pound, and *khai* mixed with molasses or sugar-cane juice at three halfpence per pound.

(2.) *Muri* is another very light preparation of rice in its parched form, and tastes, when fresh and properly made, not unlike biscuit. It differs from *khai* in the manner of its preparation, taste, and quality. With regard to the first, while *khai* is prepared from paddy by simply exposing it to the action of heat through the medium of sand over a hearth, *muri* is obtained by a more complicated process. Particular care is necessary in boiling the paddy from which the rice for this purpose is obtained. It has to be boiled twice, so that the grain partly protrudes through the husk; it is then dried by exposure to the sun before husking. The effect of this process is to harden the grain, which is distinguished from common rice by its darker colour and harder texture. It is now roasted on a fire in an open earthen vessel, stirring it well, with the addition of a little solution of salt and water from time to time. While this is being done, sand is heated in a separate and larger vessel. As soon as sufficient heat has been absorbed, the rice is thrown in handfuls at a time into the vessel containing sand, and shaken briskly with a bundle of thin sticks for a minute or two, when the heated grains swell. The *muri*, thus prepared, is then separated by allowing the sand to pass through a sieve. *Muri* is also made into sweetmeats. This preparation sells in Farídpur District at three halfpence a pound.

(3.) *Chirá* is another form in which rice is consumed. It is made thus: The paddy, after being steeped in water for two or

three days, is removed to another vessel and partially roasted on a fire; it is then beaten flat, and separated from the chaff by the rice pedal. The substance thus obtained is tough and difficult to masticate, but it absorbs water readily, and when well soaked, it is difficult to distinguish it from boiled rice, which it also resembles somewhat in taste. If natives of Bengal were to betake themselves to a seafaring life, this substance would answer admirably all the purposes of sea-biscuits. It can be kept wholesome for any length of time with ordinary care, and requires no additional preparation, except soaking in water, to render it at once fit for use. Native passengers, when proceeding from one place to another, whether by land or water, and when the cooking of a meal of boiled rice is not only inconvenient, but attended with loss of time, always prefer *chirá* to anything else: nor are the facilities for obtaining it wánting, for by the side of the most lonesome roads or river of any importance—wherever, in short, there exists a grain shop of any sort—if nothing else is to be had, *chirá* and *gur*, salt, tamarind, and sometimes curd (*dahi*) and plantains, are sure to be procured. Another preparation of the same article is by parching it on a pan of hot sand, called *chirá bhájá*, which is also extensively used as a light outdoor meal (*jalpán*) and likewise as an ingredient of many cakes and comfits. *Chirá* is sometimes steeped in water till it becomes sour, the liquor being administered as a cooling and nourishing drink by native physicians. Ordinary *chirá* sells at about three farthings a pound.

(4.) *Chául bhájá*, or simple parched rice, is extensively made use of as a cheap and light meal in native families, especially by the women, eaten with a little mustard, oil, and salt, and sometimes bits of chilies by way of an additional relish.

(5.) *Chhátu*. These are made by reducing to powder parched rice or grain, such as *chául bhájá*, *muri*, *khai*, *chirá*, *jab bhájá* or fried barley, &c. The best is that prepared from barley, and this is the only way in which the latter grain is commonly consumed in Lower Bengal. *Chhátus* are also obtained from gram, peas, and other pulses, but these are chiefly used in the preparation of sweetmeats.

(6.) *Pithás*, or native cakes, are compound preparations of rice flour, with more or less sugar, milk, or other substances. They are home made, and never sold.

LIQUID PREPARATIONS OF RICE.—The liquid preparations of

rice are *ámbajaler kángidesí sharáb*, or country spirits, and *pachwai*, or rice-beer. The first-named preparation is made in the following manner:—A small quantity of cooked rice is put into an earthen pot with water every night, and this is repeated during a month or so. In the course of this process the rice gradually dissolves at the bottom of the pot, and then emits a sour smell, and becomes somewhat saltish to the taste. This preparation is chiefly used for medicinal purposes; for instance, it forms an ingredient in several kinds of medicinal oils. It is also used in making *jári*, a mixture given in cases of measles, and other similar complaints. It is only made for home consumption, and is not sold. The process adopted in manufacturing country spirits from rice is the same in Faridpur as elsewhere in Bengal, and is too widely known to need a detailed description. To sell the spirit at a slightly enhanced price, the native shopkeepers dye it with the extract of red sandal-wood and add some spices to it, when they give it the name of *Ghote Goláb*. *Jáoábim*, *Kenádár* and *ánis* are different kinds of country spirit, and are sold at about one shilling and ninepence per quart. The people of this District do not drink *pachwai*, but the extension of the Eastern Bengal Railway line to Goálanda has brought many hill people there, and shops for the sale of it have been opened. It sells at about a farthing a quart.

Extension of Rice Cultivation.—No improvement is visible in the quality of the different species of rice grown in Faridpur. The greater part of the District is owned by a class of non-resident proprietors, who have little or no local knowledge, and probably feel disinclined to improve the condition of their estates, as these are not immediately under their own control, but have passed into the hands of subordinate holders, such as *patnídárs*, *jotdárs*, &c., owing to the system of sub-infeudation, which has been carried on to a great extent here as everywhere else throughout Bengal. The cultivators follow in the footsteps of their forefathers, neither knowing nor áttempting to learn how to improve the quality and quantity of the crops raised by them. As before stated, however, the varieties of rice have increased of late, and in the foregoing list of rice crops, all those marked with asterisks have been introduced into the District within the last twenty years. The increase in the number of species of rice is owing to the annual exodus of husbandmen from Faridpur to the Sundarbans, and to the Bháwál Fiscal Division in the north of Dacca, during the harvest season in November, De-

cember, and January, when the cultivators in Farídpur have either finished the reaping of their fields, or are able to leave somebody behind to look after them. These men generally bring back with them the seeds for new varieties of rice from other places. The cultivated area under rice has also greatly increased of late years, owing to the closing of the indigo factories, and the silting-up of the Mará Padmá and other watercourses. In former times, the indigo planters cut a number of small watercourses (*kháls*) from the Nasibsháhí marshes to the river Chandná. These have now become partially filled up, and many thousands of acres have thus been reclaimed. The following is a list of the principal of such *kháls* cut by the indigo planters:—(1) Ratandígháa Khál, in the north-west of the District, running under village Ratandígháa. (2) Maddápur Khál, running under the village of the same name in the north-west of Farídpur. (3) Napárá Khál, also in the north-west of the District, takes its name from the village near which it runs. (4) Baharpur Khál and Tetuliá Khál, also in the north-west of the District, run alongside the villages from which they take their names. (5) Ráipur Khál, near village Ráipur, in the west of the District. (6) Matlákhál, runs under the village of the same name in the west of the District. (7) Singár Khál, also in the western part of Farídpur, passes a little below the village of Betangá. (8) Lánjáná Khál, runs under village Lánjáná, in the west of the District; and (9) Cháltá Talár Khál, situated in the south-west of the District. These watercourses have done much towards draining the marshes, and have enabled a considerable portion of them to be brought under profitable cultivation. Rice has always been the staple product of the District, and has in no locality been introduced as a substitute for inferior cereals.

THE OTHER CEREAL CROPS of Farídpur District are the following:—Wheat (*goham*), sown broadcast on moist land in November and December, and reaped in March or April. Barley (*jab*), grown on the same description of land, and sown and reaped at the same seasons as wheat. It is not, however, an article of general or even ordinary consumption. Oats (*jai*), sown on high land in October, and reaped in February. Indian-corn (*bhuttá*), sown on high dry land in June, and cut in September. There is but very little cultivation of the two last-named cereals in the District, indeed only one or two gardens in the Civil Station contain small patches of land growing these crops. Two or three varieties of millet are also raised, but they are only

consumed by the lower classes in seasons of scarcity, when the rice crop fails, as a cheap substitute for that universal staff of life.

PULSE CROPS.—*Máskalái* (Phaseolus radiatus) is extensively cultivated throughout the District, by sowings on lands just emerging from the inundation in September or October, the seed being simply scattered over the soft ground before it dries. This crop, which is always a most luxuriant one, is gathered at the end of December or beginning of January, when it is readily bought up in the local markets for export to Calcutta and other places. The new grain is generally sold at from 2s. 8d. to 3s. 4d. a hundredweight. *Mug* (Phaseolus mungo) is of three varieties—*soná* (yellow) and *gorá* (white), and *porá mug*. All three varieties are sown in high land, but they have different seasons for sowing and cutting. The best species, the *soná mug*, is sown in August or September, and gathered in November or December. This pulse is a wholesome, nourishing, and an easily digestible article of diet. It is sometimes eaten raw (previously softened by steeping in water), with sugar, as a morning repast after bathing. Price from 6s. 8d. to 8s. 2d. a hundredweight. *Matar* or peas (Pisum sativum). The variety of pea with which the people of Farídpur District are most familiar, and which they cultivate extensively in the cold season, is the *desí matar*, a dwarf species of the common pea: sown broadcast on fields lightly ploughed, and from which the rice crop has been just reaped, in Nov. or Dec., and cut in Jan. or Feb. The pea is hard, almost like duck-shot; in fact, is sometimes actually so employed. It is frequently eaten parched, and, when boiled, occasionally forms a meal by itself, in lieu of rice, for the poorer labourers. Its price is from 3s. to 4s. a hundredweight. *Arhar* or *harar* (Cytisus cajan), sown in high land along the borders of fields and gardens in the early rains about April and May, and cut at the end of the cold weather in February or March. The average price of the pulse is from 5s. 4d. to 6s. 8d. a hundredweight. *Khesárí* (Lathyrus sativus); this is a very common grain, and is extensively grown, both as a quick-growing fodder for the cattle and as an inferior pulse for the poorer classes. The crop is cultivated in the same way as peas, sown on low land in October or November, and cut in February or March. *Khesárí* in some places has the reputation of being a poisonous lentil, but no injurious effects from its use are noticeable in Farídpur. Average market price from 2s. to 2s. 8d. a hundredweight. *Thikrí kalái* (Dolichos pilosus), a grain much resembling *khesárí*, is sown on high

land in May or June, and cut in August, September, or October. *Musurí* (Ervum lens) is extensively cultivated as a cold-weather crop, being sown on high lands in November or December, and cut in March or April. The pulse is light, easy of digestion, and forms a favourite article of food with all classes. *But* or *gram* (Cicer arietinum), sown in high land in November or December, and gathered in March or April. *Gram* is not much cultivated in Faridpur, and has a comparatively limited consumption in the District. It is eaten either parched or softened in water, with coarse sugar or molasses and ginger. As food it is said to be strengthening, although rather difficult of digestion. Average market price from 4s. to 5s. 4d. a hundredweight. *Sim* or beans; three varieties of beans are commonly met with, viz., one with flat pods from two to four inches long and half an inch broad; one round and inflated, of a blackish green colour, and another similar to the last, but with the pods of a blackish purple; these varieties are called respectively *sádá sim*, *kálá sim*, and *lál sim*: all sown during the rains, but flower and pod in the cold weather. *Mákhan sim* (Canavália gladiata) is another bean: a perennial twiner, with a large, flat, sword-shaped pod, from six inches to a foot in length, and about an inch broad. It is sown solitarily under trees, up which it climbs. [As I am no botanist, I trust for the scientific names to the official reports.]

TUBERS.—*Gol álu*, or potato (Solanum tuberosum), is not much grown in the District, but imported potatoes from Dacca are always to be obtained in the bázár. They are eaten boiled, roasted, fried, and also cut up and cooked as an ingredient in many native curries and dishes. *Mithá álu*, or sweet potato (Convolvulus batatus), is the long, red, tuberous, underground stem of the plant, which has a sweetish taste, and a peculiar pleasant flavour. The plant is usually multiplied from cuttings of the parent stem, which are inserted in ridges in May or June. The tubers become ripe at the beginning of the cold season; it is eaten like ordinary potatoes, and sometimes also raw. *Chuprí álu* and *garán álu*, or yam (Dioscorea globosa and Dioscorea rubella). Only two varieties of yams are met with—one long and cylindrical, the other of a round form, and both occasionally employed for culinary purposes. They are fleshy and farinaceous, and may be used as excellent substitutes for potato towards the close of the rains, when they come to perfection, and the latter vegetable is scarce. *Mánkachu* is the well-known, large, tender rhizome of Arum indicum. When cooked, it is both nutritive

and wholesome, and is in great demand among all classes of the people. *Ol* (Arum campanulatum); the globular underground stem of this plant is also now and then used for food.

OIL SEEDS.—*Til* (Sessamum orientale), is of two kinds—*til*, sown on low land in August or September, and cut in November and December; and *kálá til*, sown on high land in February or March, and cut in June or July. This plant is cultivated all over the District for the seed, as well as for the oil obtained from it, both of which are in much request. The oil, when pure, is sweetish, and will keep for months without change or turning rancid. Two varieties of mustard seed are grown in the District, viz., the ordinary black mustard, *sarishá* (Senapis nigra), and *rái* (Senapis ramosa). Both sorts are sown about October or November, but one variety ripens earliest, and is gathered in January or February, while the other is gathered in March. Of the two sorts, *rái* has a larger grain, and yields the most and best oil, three hundredweights of seed usually giving one hundredweight of oil; while from the other sort it takes four hundredweight of seed to express one hundredweight of oil. The price of mustard-oil varies, according to the season, from £1, 18s. to £2, 11s. per cwt., and the seed from 8s. 2d. to 13s. 4d. per cwt., according to quality. Both seed and oil are extensively consumed for a variety of purposes. *Masiná*, or linseed (Linum usitatissimum), is sown on high land in October or November, and cut in February or March. *Bherándá*, or castor-oil (Ricinis communis), is sown on high land in April or May, and cut in January or February.

FIBRES.—*Koshtá*, or jute (Corchorus olitorius), sown on high land in March and April, and cut in July, August, or September. *Meshta* (Hibiscus cannabinus), sown on high land in March or April, and cut in July, August, or September. [See "Dacca District."] *Son*, or hemp), is of two species—namely, *bágbá son*, planted in high land in April, May, or June, and cut in July, August, and September; and *phul son*, planted in high land in October and November, and cut in February, March, or April.

OTHER CROPS.—SUGAR-CANE.—*Ákh*, or sugar-cane (Saccharum officinarum). Four species of sugar-cane are cultivated in Farídpur, viz., *kájlá*, *dhal sundar*, *khailá*, and *chuniá*. The two first varieties are sown on high, and the two last on low lying land; but all are planted and cut at the same seasons, being sown in January or February, and cut in February or March of the following year.

Sugar-cane is largely cultivated in Farídpur, and its produce forms an important article of District trade. No attempt seems to have as yet been made to introduce any of the superior varieties of cane, and it is doubtful whether any innovation, either as regards the old plant, or the present modes of culture, would prove acceptable to the cultivators. The only manure used in the cultivation of sugar-cane is cow-dung. This is spread over the field during the rains preceding the cultivation, after which the land is allowed to remain fallow till sowing-time. The crop is never grown on the same field for two successive years, and requires careful ploughing and pulverisation of the soil before the young shoots are put into the ground. During the growth of the plant, the only care required is to tie or roll up from time to time the growing stalks with their own leaves, and sometimes to pick out a species of larvæ, which drills into the young cane, and does great damage if not timely guarded against. A description of the process of extracting the juice, boiling, and refining, will be found on a subsequent page.

THE DATE-PALM OR KHEJUR-TREE (Phœnix sylvestris) is very largely cultivated in Farídpur, and the sugar produced from the juice of the tree forms the most important article of export from the District. The trees are generally planted along the raised boundaries of fields, and throughout the village sites, about eight or nine feet apart, and as a rule are allowed to grow on the spot where they are first sown. But if the ground be low, and subject to inundation for any length of time, the seedlings are first propagated in a nursery. They are transplanted from the nursery during the months of May and June, or soon after the commencement of the rains, a certain degree of moisture being absolutely necessary to ensure their flourishing in the new site chosen for them. The natives generally prefer a deep, rich clay soil for date cultivation, if possible well above inundation limits. An account of the process of extracting the juice from the trees, and its manufacture into sugar, will be given on a subsequent page. [See also my "Account of Jessor District."]

NÍL OR INDIGO is planted on high lands, or those which are only inundated at the height of the rains, or are protected by embankments. There are two seasons for sowing indigo, one at the close of the rainy season, called the "October sowing," and one at the commencement of the hot weather, called the "Spring sowing." Spring sowings are preferred in Farídpur District. Even where lands have been sown as an experiment in October, they are sometimes

broken up and re-sown in April for spring produce, without a fair trial having been given to the October plant, so highly are the chances of a good spring crop prized. Indigo cultivation is not popular with the peasantry, and since the indigo disturbances of 1860, of which I have given a brief description in my "Statistical Account of Nadiyá District," the cultivation and manufacture of the dye has almost ceased. All the large factories in Farídpur District are now closed.

SAFFLOWER OR KUSUM (Carthamus tinctorius) is grown to a considerable extent in the District, and the following particulars regarding its cultivation, &c., are quoted from Colonel Gastrell's Revenue Survey Report :—"The cultivation of safflower is on the increase in Farídpur. The land generally chosen for this plant is the rich light soil near the banks of the large rivers or on the islands. The seed is sown in October, and the flowers gathered in April following; six or eight good ploughings are needed before the seed is put in the ground. Rape-seed is generally sown down with the safflower, and occasionally in Farídpur bearded wheat. The fields require to be kept clear of weeds, and the earth round the roots of the plants to be occasionally loosened. The crop is a very exhausting one, and if manure be not available, it is usual to alternate it with oil-seeds or rice. After the safflower crop has been gathered in, the ground is often ploughed up immediately, and prepared to be sown with rice. One acre of safflower cultivation requires about sixty pounds of seed, valued at 3s. 9d. to 5s. 7½d., and yields from sixty-six to seventy-eight pounds of dried flowers, worth from £1, 7s. to £1, 19s. It also produces from eleven to thirteen hundredweights of seed, from which a coarse lamp-oil is expressed by heat, representing a money value of about 18s." Prices have now risen (1873).

TOBACCO is only sparingly grown in small patches round the homesteads by the cultivators; but the leaf, although well-formed, and the out-turn pretty fair as regards quantity, is very weak, owing probably to the too humid character of the soil and climate; and this is perhaps why cultivation is not carried on on a large scale. The little tobacco raised is never brought to market, being principally kept for home consumption by mixing it with the superior imported sorts. The mode of cultivation is not different from that followed elsewhere. There is only one form in which the weed is used for smoking, namely, that commonly known as *guruk támák*, or cake tobacco, prepared by mincing the dry leaves, previously chopped fine

with a *dáo*, or reduced to powder in an *ukli* (wooden pestle and mortar), with *gur*, and then kneading the whole well with the hand into a hard paste. A few spices are sometimes added to give it an agreeable scent. Although at present a comparatively insignificant product in Bengal, I am inclined to believe, from personal inquiry and observation, that tobacco will yet become an important crop. Cheroots are not made in the District. The apparatus for smoking is the same as elsewhere. A little tobacco leaf is sometimes chewed by old women with *pán*, and a little is also consumed as snuff, but not much.

SIDDHI, CHARAS, AND GANJÁ (Cannabis indica).—This intoxicating drug is used in two forms in the District, viz., either as *bháng* or *siddhi*, consisting of the dried upper leaves and the loose panicles without the stalks, which the natives collect during the rains while the plant is in flower, it growing quite wild in the waste places in the villages; or as *ganjá*, its dried clustered raceme, which is always imported and sold under Government license. Of these, *ganjá* and *charas* are smoked for intoxicating purposes, *siddhi* being chiefly employed medicinally.

PÁN OR BETEL LEAF (Piper betel) is grown on high land. The creeper is planted in the months of February, March, and April, the leaves being gathered at all seasons of the year as soon as the plant has arrived at maturity, which is usually about a twelvemonth after it has been sown. *Pán* is cultivated in a sort of greenhouse, known as a *pán baraj*, a garden patch, enclosed on all sides and also at the top with a reed thatch, to protect the plant from the sun. These *pán* gardens or houses are scattered all over the District, and several of them sometimes close together. Besides requiring shading from too much sun, the plant needs other careful nurture, which the *báruis*, the caste who cultivate the *pán*, alone understand how to bestow upon it. The soil of an elevated spot is essential, and it must be well drained and kept constantly manured, the best manure for the purpose being old *khol* (mustard oil-cake). The *pán* produced in the District is of the common kind—no *chháchi pán* being here grown, although to meet the Dacca market quantities of this variety of leaf are raised on the other side of the Padmá, just within the Dacca District. The leaf is universally chewed, daubed at first with a little quicklime, and then placing over it a few slices of the areca-nut and a small fragment of *kath* or *khayer*; the whole is afterwards folded into a flattish cone or packet with the leaf outside

—*pán khili*—a clove being often pierced through the upper open end of the cone as a pin to prevent the ingredients from falling out. The lime and *kath* when chewed together give a deep orange or red colour to the cud, and thus dye the lips and tongue in the peculiar manner so common among the natives of this District. The *pán* thus eaten, generally after a meal, serves as a powerful digestive stimulant to the stomach, while, owing to the lime it contains, it prevents any undue acidity. The chewing of the betel is also supposed to preserve the teeth.

SUPÁRI OR BETEL-NUT TREES (Areca catechu) are cultivated throughout the District, every village site of any standing being studded with these graceful palms. Colonel Gastrell in his Revenue Survey Report, says—"They are sometimes scattered indiscriminately about the villages, but are more generally planted out in regular plantations. Each tree yields on an average a hundred nuts per annum, the value of which varies greatly. These trees thrive best in damp rich soil, and in places where their roots are well shaded. They do not appear to impoverish the land much, and admit of crops of rice or other grain being sown, and thriving on the same field. The natives, indeed, affirm that the trees are greatly improved, and bear more fruit, when paddy or rice is sown throughout the plantation. The wood of the betel is of very hard fibrous texture, and works up into lathes of great length, strength, and durability, which are largely used for flooring of boats, &c."

TURMERIC OR HALDÍ (Curcuma longa) is sown on very high land in April or May, and is cut in the following January or February. Ginger or *ádá* (Ammomum zingiber) is also sown on the same description of land, and is planted and cut at the same seasons as the above.

FRUIT-TREES.—The following list and brief description of the various fruit-trees met with in Faríḍpur District is also condensed from Dr Basu's valuable Report already alluded to.

MANGO OR AM (Mangifera indica).—This stately evergreen forms alone at least fifty per cent. of the trees grown in the District; indeed the tree is so common, that there is scarcely a hut which is not more or less shaded under its widely extended foliage. The tree blossoms about the beginning of February, and the fruit generally ripens by the middle of May. There are at least twenty varieties of the fruit in the District, varying in size, shape, and flavour; but as they are all more or less infected with

a species of beetle, they are not used by Europeans, and indeed are scarcely fitted for the table. Generally speaking, the best sorts are the most injured by these insects; the natives, notwithstanding, greedily eat them, and they are also made into *ámsatta*, which is prepared by exposing the expressed juice of the sarcocarp in a thin layer on a plate or piece of cloth to the sun until quite dry, when it is pulled off and folded and kept for use. When carefully prepared and kept from damp, *ámsatta* preserves all the flavour of the fresh mango for months. It is a wholesome preserve, and is given to the sick or convalescent as an appetiser, and to promote digestion.

PINE-APPLE, *ánáras* (Bromelia ananas).—The pine-apple met with in the local markets is for the most part imported from Dacca or Bákarganj. The fruit is in season in June, July, and August, and is eaten by the natives sliced with a little salt, or steeped in rosewater and sweetened.

JACK FRUIT, *káthál* (Artocarpus integrifolia).—This is another very common fruit, and perhaps the largest known in the world. A large jack will often weigh as much as three quarters of a hundredweight. The edible part is a thick yellow fleshy pericarp enclosing a large ex-albuminous seed. A collection of these, closely packed together on a stunted branch, and encased in a thick spiny, leathery integument, constitutes the entire fruit. It has a peculiar strong unpleasant smell, but is nevertheless highly prized and largely consumed by the people. The farinaceous seeds of the jack form a valuable culinary article in a native household, and when roasted are said to be not unlike chestnuts in flavour.

CUSTARD APPLE, *átá* and *noná* (Annona squamosa and Annona reticulata).—These two fruits are very much like each other, having a round form with a soft skin, containing a number of seeds embedded in a mass of soft whitish flesh resembling custard. The *átá* differs from the *noná* by its tubercular appearance and the superior delicacy of its flavour.

ORANGES, &c., *nebu*.—*Nebu* is a general term applied to all fruits of the order Aurantiacæ; hence citrons, lemons, the shaddock, and orange are all *nebus*. The varieties indigenous to the District are the *kágchi* and *páti nebus*, the jungle *nebu*, and the *bátábi nebu* (pumplenose). They all owe their acidity to citric acid contained in their pulp. The first two varieties are much resorted to either for making sherbets with sugar or salt, or to impart an agreeable

acid taste to rice. The usual method is to cut the *nebu* into three slices vertically, so as to admit of taking out the central tough placenta, and then to squeeze the juice between the fingers into the sherbet or the dish of rice. The juice is cooling, a stomachic, and powerfully antiscorbutic. The pumplenose, when ripe, contains a cooling sub-acid juice, used more as a dessert than the limes are.

BEL (*Ægle marmelos*).—This tree is a very common one, bearing a large smooth round fruit with a hard rind. The flesh of the ripe *bel* is sweet and fragrant, and is noted for its nutritive, astringent, and cathartic properties. The fruit is in season in the hot weather.

COCOA-NUT, *nárikel* (Cocos nucifera).—This is not a very common tree in the District, and besides forming an article of food, is put to a variety of useful purposes.

The other fruit-trees of Farídpur District may be summed up as follow:—*Bádám*, or country almond (Terminalia catappa), occasionally met with on the roadside, with a kernel not unlike the regular almond in taste and flavour. *Tut*, or mulberry (Morus Indica); the fruit comes in season soon after the cold weather, but is not much cared for. *Péárá* or *guava* (Psidium pyriferum); only one variety of this tree is met with in the District, the fruit being white, and in size and shape like an ordinary pear; in season in July and August. *Ghulláb jám*, or rose-apple (Eugenia jambos), and *jámrul*, or star-apple (Eugenia alba); both these trees are not unfrequently met with in native gardens; the one bearing a round white fruit with a rose flavour, the other a conical fruit of the size of a small pear, but with a shining waxy appearance, and insipid in taste; both come in season in the rains. *Tarmuj*, or water-melon (Cucurbita citrullus), and *phuti*, or musk-melon (Cucumis momordica); these fruits are found in abundance during the rains, and are eaten greedily, although not very wholesome. Peach (Amygdalis Persica); this tree is not altogether unknown in the District, but the fruit is generally watery and insipid, and hardly worth anything. *Gáb* (Embryopteris glutinifera); the fruit is only eaten occasionally by poor persons. *Wiláyati gáb* (Diospyros glutinosá) is occasionally met with; the fruit, which ripens in August, has a rich crimson down round it, and resembles a plantain in taste; the fruit is pear-shaped, with generally three flattish stones in the centre. Plantains and bananas, *kalá*; the varieties commonly met with are

sapri, champá, chini-champá, martábán, rámkalá, kanyá, bási, mádná and *biche kalá* or *kantáli*. The two last kinds, although the sweetest, are not much prized. Plantains are largely consumed, and eaten either alone, or with rice and milk, much in the same way as the mango. *Lichi* (Nephellium lichi); pomegranate (*dárim*), and *papeya* (Carica papaya) trees, are also met with.

AREA OF DISTRICT: OUT-TURN OF CROPS, &c.—The Surveyor-General returned the area of the District in 1871 at 1524·06 square miles, of which I have the details of 1506⅓ square miles, or 964,035 acres. These details are as follow:—1143·44 square miles or 731,806 acres were returned in 1871 as actually under cultivation; 133 square miles or 85,120 acres as uncultivated, but capable of cultivation; and 229·85 square miles or 147,109 acres as under jungle and water, and uncultivable. It is impossible to state accurately the comparative acreage under the principal crops, but the following is an estimate of the cultivated area of the more important crops in 1870:—472,313 acres were estimated as under rice cultivation; barley, 500 acres; wheat, 500 acres; pulses, 160,000 acres; oil-seeds of different kinds, such as *sarishá, til*, &c., 20,000 acres; jute, 20,000 acres; sugar-cane, 10,000 acres; indigo, 1500 acres. There are no lands in the District which are rented as high as 18s., or even 9s. an acre. The yield of grain as compared with the acreage is comparatively low, and the rates of rent are low in consequence. The best descriptions of land in Faridpur yield no more than about seven and three quarter hundredweights of *áman* paddy per acre on an average, and these are generally rented at an annual rent of 3s. 9d. an acre. Except in the case of marsh lands, *áus* seed is generally intermixed with the *áman*, and consequently the total out-turn per acre is something higher. The *áus* crop alone amounts to an average of a little over four and a third hundredweights of paddy per acre, and the produce is generally sold at about fifty pounds for a shilling for the unhusked paddy. Lands which do not yield on an average more than six and three quarter hundredweights of *áman* paddy are rented at 3s. an acre per annum; and the lowest kinds of paddy land, which produce not more than five and a half hundredweights per acre, were returned in 1871 at 2s. 3d. an acre. These estimates seem rather low, as it will be seen from the statement of rents given on a subsequent page that in very many cases rice land rents as high as 7s. 6d. an acre, and very seldom falls below 3s. an acre per annum. The paddy grown on all the

three kinds of land mentioned above is the same both in kind and quality, and towards the end of 1870 was selling (unhusked) at the rate of forty-three to forty-five pounds for a shilling. In almost all paddy lands, other cereals and different kinds of pulses are grown. Sometimes these are sown after the harvest, and sometimes before it. The cereals and pulses thus grown as a second crop are mentioned below, with the approximate yield per acre, and their prices as they stood at the end of 1870:—(1) *Musurí*, average yield four and a third hundredweights per acre, worth 4s. 8d. a hundredweight. (2) *Matar* (peas), average yield about six and three quarter hundredweights, worth from 4s. to 4s. 8d. a hundredweight. (3) *Mug*, average yield three and a third to four and a third hundredweights per acre, worth about 6s. 8d. a hundredweight. (4) *Máskalái*, average yield five and a half hundredweights per acre, worth about 2s. 8d. a hundredweight. (5) *Khesárí*, average yield seven and three quarter hundredweights per acre, worth about 1s. 8d. a hundredweight. (6) *Sarishá*, average yield two and a quarter hundredweights per acre, worth about 8s. a hundredweight. (7) *Rái*, average yield two and a quarter hundredweights per acre, worth about the same price. (8) *But* (gram), average yield four and a third hundredweights per acre, worth about 3s. 4d. a hundredweight. (9) *Jab* (barley), average yield eight and three quarter hundredweights per acre, worth about 1s. 4d. per hundredweight. (10) *Goham* (wheat), average yield six and three quarter hundredweights per acre, worth about 8s. a hundredweight. (11) *Chiná*, average yield six and three quarter hundredweights per acre, worth about 2s. per hundredweight. (12) *Masiná*, average yield four and a third hundredweights per acre, worth about 5s. 4d. a hundredweight. (13) *Chhota piyáj* (small onions), average yield twenty-six hundredweights per acre, worth about 2s. 8d. per hundredweight. (14) *Bara piyáj* (large onions), average yield fifty-four hundredweights per acre, worth about 10d. a hundredweight. On the whole, the Collector is of opinion that a fair profit from an acre of rice land rented at 3s. 9d. an acre is about £1, 10s. a year; and estimates that of an acre rented at 3s. at about 18s. per annum, after allowing for all costs of cultivation, including the value of the peasant's own labour. The total weight of the crops produced during the year depends upon the sort of second crop which the cultivator plants in his fields.

No Returns exist in the Collectorate Records showing the rates of rent in the different Fiscal Divisions in olden times, but at the

present day the lands of the District, with the various rates of rent assessed upon each, may be classified as follows:—(1) *Bástu*, or homestead lands, on which the villagers' houses are built; rent from 6s. to 7s. 6d. an acre. (2) *Bágichá*, or garden land, generally situated around the homesteads; rent from 5s. 3d. to 5s. 7½d. an acre. (3) *Ákh*, or sugar-cane land; rent from 4s. 10½d. to 5s. 3d. an acre. (4) *Sani*, or straw land; rent from 4s. 1d. to 4s. 6d. an acre. (5) *Pán* land; rent from 7s. 6d. to 9s. an acre. (6) Superior rice land; rent 3s. 9d. an acre. (7) Second quality rice land; rent, 3s. an acre. (8) Third quality rice land; rent 2s. 3d. an acre. More exact details of the rates of rent for different sorts of land will be given, *parganá* by *parganá*, on a subsequent page.

CONDITION OF THE PEASANTRY.—A farm of thirty-three acres or upwards would be considered a very large holding for a peasant in Faridpur District; and one of three and a half acres a very small one. A fair-sized holding for an ordinary peasant would be a farm of about ten or twelve acres, but including, in addition to his rice fields, a certain quantity of garden and other descriptions of land for growing higher kinds of crops. A cultivator is considered to be in fair circumstances when the necessaries of life can be supplied from the produce of his own fields. An ordinary pair of oxen cannot cultivate more than five acres of land; an unusually stout and healthy pair might be able to cultivate between six and seven acres of land throughout the whole year, but certainly not more. A farm of five acres in extent does not make its holder so well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper, but a holding of this size which included a patch of sugar-cane land would render a cultivator better off than a money payment of sixteen shillings a month. About ten or twelve years ago the cultivating class was generally in debt, but the enhanced prices of rice, sugar-cane, and in short in all the necessaries of life produced in Faridpur, have so far improved their position that more than half of them have cleared off their old debts, and are now in comparatively easy circumstances. The Collector of the District is of opinion that about one sixth of the whole cultivating class is still in debt.

DIFFERENT CLASSES OF CULTIVATORS.—It is difficult to state the proportions of the different classes of tenants in Faridpur, that is to say, the number of those who hold their lands with a Right of Occupancy, and of those who are not liable to enhancement of rent, as compared with those who are mere tenants-at-will. The same man

may have a Right of Occupancy to his homestead, or certain other land, and yet be a mere tenant-at-will with regard to some other piece of land which he may hold as a Non-Resident or *Páikásht* cultivator. *Khúdkásht*, or Resident husbandmen, are mostly tenants with Occupancy rights with respect to the land on which they dwell, and are sometimes *miráshdárs* or holders of long standing on a fixed rental. Very few *Khúdkásht*, or Resident cultivators, are tenants-at-will with respect to their homestead lands, and indeed the proportion of cultivators who hold even their farm lands as mere tenants-at-will is said to be not more than thirteen per cent of the whole. The great bulk of the cultivating class in Farídpur, or about seventy-five per cent. of the whole, are acknowledged to possess Occupancy Rights defined by the provisions of Act X. of 1859. The higher class of husbandmen who hold their lands permanently, and at a fixed rent not liable to enhancement by the superior landlord, and acknowledged and registered as such under the provisions of the same Act, amount to about twelve per cent. of the whole. There are very few cases in Farídpur of small proprietors who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands without either a superior landlord above them or a sub-holder or labourer of any sort under them. The Collector states that the number of such holders in the District is not supposed to exceed ten or fifteen. During the ten years (1860–70) in which the Land Law (Act X. of 1859) has been in operation in Farídpur, forty-nine tenants have established Rights of Occupancy in Court, and eighty-two have established their rights to hold their land in perpetuity without enhancement of rent. An average husbandman can comfortably support a middling-sized household, consisting of five members, on about £1 per month.

THE DOMESTIC ANIMALS of the District consist of cows, buffaloes, horses, sheep, goats, dogs, cats, pigs, fowls, ducks, &c. Oxen are used for agricultural purposes; also buffaloes, but not so commonly. Sheep, goats, pigs, fowls, and ducks, &c., are bred for food, as well as for purposes of trade. The common domestic fowl is largely reared in the District by the Muhummadans, who constitute almost three fifths of the population; it is bred both for local consumption and for export to Calcutta. For the most part, the Musalmán women attend to the management of the poultry-yard. No household of a Muhammadan can be said to be complete without its pair or two of sitting hens with a large cock or two, and generally a fair stock of their progeny. In many houses a small separate

hut, thickly staked with long bamboo pegs outside to prevent depredations from jackals and other wild animals, is specially provided for the accommodation of the poultry. In others, however, where no such provision is made, the poultry either share the same room with its human inmates, or they find shelter in the cow-shed. They wander free all day, and it is of course an understood thing that they must pick up their own food as best they may from what they can get about the house; excepting the young brood or the hen sitting on the egg, for which some rice or other suitable food has to be allowed. Most of the poultry thus reared is intended for the market. A few stray quails are occasionally seen.

The price of an average cow is from £1 to £1, 10s., and of an average pair of oxen from £3 to £4. Buffaloes are of two kinds in Faríd pur, namely, *bángar* and *kasár*. A pair of female buffaloes of the *bángar* class sells from £5 to £6, and a pair of male buffaloes of the same class at £3 to £3, 10s. A pair of female *kasar* buffaloes is worth from £10 to £12, 10s., and a pair of males from £4 to £6. The *bángar* buffalo is timid and inoffensive, and used in drawing carts and ploughing. The *kasar* buffalo is of powerful make, and very ferocious. A score of sheep costs about £2; a score of female kids, six months old, £1, 10s.; a score of male kids, six months old, £4; a score of full-grown pigs, from £14 to £16.

THE AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS in use in Faríd pur are very nearly the same as those in other parts of Bengal, and consist of a *nángal* or plough, *mai* or clod-breaker, *nánglá* or rake, *kodáli* or hóe, and *káchi* or sickle. To prepare land for the seed, the field is ploughed in furrows both lengthwise and across, until the surface is pretty well broken. The *mai* is then drawn over the field, generally by four oxen, with two men standing upon it to give it weight, in order to break the clods turned up by the plough, and to smooth the land. The *mai* is made of two parallel pieces of bamboo joined together by cross bars, and resembles a ladder. After the land is thoroughly broken and made loose, the field is again ploughed into furrows. The seeds are then sown broadcast, and the *mai* is once more dragged over the land to cover the earth over the seed. The *nánglá* is a kind of rake with wooden teeth. After the plants have grown to a certain height, the land is harrowed with this implement, the object being to destroy the weeds. In some parts of Bengal, this instrument is called *bidá*. The *káchi* or sickle is also used for weeding, besides reaping when the crop has reached

maturity. The *kodáli* or hoe is used in clearing jungly lands when brought under cultivation for the first time, or which have been allowed to lie fallow for a length of years. The cattle and implements ordinarily required to cultivate what is technically known as "one plough" of land, or about five acres, are one pair of oxen, and one of each of the implements enumerated above, representing a capital of about £4, 10s. [Information on this head not precise.—W. W. H.]

WAGES AND PRICES.—Wages have doubled within the last fifteen years. The present wages of day-labourers and artisans, compared with fifteen years ago, are as follow:—In 1855, day-labourers earned from 2¼d. to 3d. per diem; in 1870, they received from 4½d. to 6d. Smiths received from 14s. to £1 per mensem in 1855; in 1870, they earned from £1, 4s. to £1, 10s. per month. A bricklayer's wages, which amounted from 10s. to 12s. per month in 1855, increased to from £1 to £1, 4s. per month in 1870. Carpenters, who received from 12s. to 16s. a month in 1855, earned from £1 to £1, 4s. in 1870. Properly speaking, there is no class in Farídpur who habitually follow the occupation of agricultural day-labourers. An extract from the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division" (Farídpur Section, p. 197), fully explains the system pursued in this District for obtaining assistance in tillage:—"In ploughing and weeding, a cultivator has generally to procure extra hands; for this, however, no payment is tendered, as the person so assisted repays the debt by working himself for those who helped him. This system of mutual assistance is known in this District as *gáti* or *gátá*. Sometimes a certain number of ploughs are engaged and paid for at the rate of six or eight ploughs for the rupee. But this is not usually the case. Those who do not labour at the plough themselves, such as the *jotdárs*, or husbandmen of the better class, employ this kind of labour, or else hire farm-servants, who are paid by monthly wages. There is another way in which agricultural labour is obtained in this District. A man supplies a plough and the bullocks to draw it; another man works with them. The employer gets sixteen days' work in a month, and the workman fourteen days for himself. In this way field labour is obtained without the actual payment of wages. The reaping is generally done by labourers, who are paid out of the produce of the field reaped. The general agreement seems to be that the labourer takes for himself one bundle out of every five or six reaped by him. The cost of reaping, calculated at this allowance, is something more

than a shilling a man per diem, and the consequence is, that at the harvest season almost all labourers abscond from their usual work to find employment as reapers." The rate of wages at harvest-time seems to be somewhat overstated in the above extract, and the designation of "farm-servant" must not be understood in its English sense. Here he is a servant for all sorts of household work, and when his services are not required in the field, he repairs his employer's house, plies his boat, and assists him in various other capacities. At the present day he is generally paid money wages at the rate of 5s. per mensem, besides his food. Formerly he used to receive 2s. 6d. a month besides his meals. Another mode of getting assistance for agricultural purposes was sometimes resorted to. When a cultivator required extra hands for ploughing or weeding, he had only to promise a good dinner, and he was sure of getting as many men as he needed. This system, however, has fallen into disuse, as the return on the labour thus obtained hardly compensated for the expenses incurred in providing a substantial dinner. Such labourers are called *niyárá pairád.*

PRICES OF PRODUCE.—Food grains have also increased in price during the last ten years. In 1860 the best variety of cleaned rice sold at 3s. 4d. a hundredweight; in 1870 its price was 4s. a hundredweight. Common rice, such as that used by labourers and the poorer classes, sold at 2s. 8d. a hundredweight in 1860, and 3s. 4d. a hundredweight in 1870. The best unshelled rice or paddy sold at 2s. 8d. a hundredweight in 1860, and in 1870 it was selling at the same rate. The coarser quality of unshelled rice sold at 2s. 4d. a hundredweight in 1860, but in 1870 it was returned at 2s. 2½d. a hundredweight. The maximum price for rice and paddy during the famine of 1865–66 was as follows:—Best cleaned rice, 12s. 3d. a hundredweight; common cleaned rice, 10s. 11d. a hundredweight; best unhusked rice, 6s. 1½d. a hundredweight; common unhusked rice, 5s. 5½d. a hundredweight. Other products now sell as follow:—Unshelled barley sells from 1s. 4d. to 1s. 6d. a hundredweight, and when husked and reduced to powder, at 8s. 2d. a hundredweight. Indigo is not sold int he District; the little that is manufactured is exported to Calcutta. Molasses extracted from the juice of the date-tree is sold at 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. The best kind of sugar manufactured from sugar-cane is sold at 19s. 1d. a hundredweight, and the inferior kind at 16s. 4d. a hundredweight. The following price list of the remaining principal products is taken from page 207 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," and

refers to the year 1867 :—Linseed, from 6s. 9½d. to 7s. 6d. a hundredweight; turmeric, 12s. 3d. a hundredweight; capsicums, 13s. 4d. a hundredweight; tobacco, first quality, 13s. 7¾d. a hundredweight; tobacco, inferior, 8s. 2d. a hundredweight; cotton, £3 to £3, 2s. 8d. a hundredweight; cocoa-nuts, £3, 10s. per hundred; oil-cake, 1s. 4d. a hundredweight; *ghi* or clarified butter, £2, 14s. 7d. to £3 a hundredweight. The prices of pulses and country spirits have been already given on a previous page.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—Unhusked rice or paddy is sold wholesale according to the following measure; the English equivalents being also given :—1 *káchá ser* = 1 lb. 8 oz. $10\frac{3}{5}\frac{4}{5}$ dr.; 10 *ser* = 1 *ádlá* = 15 lb. 6 oz. $13\frac{5}{7}$ dr.; 2 *ádlá* = 1 *kátá* = 1 qr. 2 lb. 13 oz. $11\frac{3}{7}$ dr.; 20 *kátá* = 1 *sali* = 5 cwt. 2 qr. 1 lb. 2 oz. $4\frac{4}{7}$ dr.; 20 *sali* = 1 *pati* = 5 tons 10 cwt. 0 qr. 22 lb. 13 oz. $11\frac{3}{7}$ dr. It is the husbandmen alone who sell paddy and all sorts of pulses by the above standard. Rice is sold by the shopkeepers and merchants according to the following measure, which is the standard throughout Bengal :—1 *páká chhaták* or 5 *tolá* = 2 oz. $0\frac{3}{3}\frac{2}{5}$ dr.; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *poá* = 8 oz. $3\frac{2}{3}\frac{3}{5}$ dr.; 4 *poá* = 1 *ser* = 2 lb. 0 oz. $14\frac{2}{3}\frac{2}{5}$ dr.; 5 *ser* = 1 *pasuri* = 10 lb. 4 oz. $9\frac{1}{7}$ dr.; 8 *pasuri* = 1 *man* or *maund* = 82 lb. 4 oz. $9\frac{1}{7}$ dr. Oil, tobacco, salt, different kinds of pulses, in short, all articles except rice, are sold by the shopkeepers according to the following measure :—1 *káchá chhaták* or $3\frac{3}{4}$ *tolá* = 1 oz. $8\frac{2}{3}\frac{4}{5}$ dr.; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *poá* = 6 oz. $2\frac{2}{3}\frac{6}{5}$ dr.; 4 *poá* = *ser* = 1 lb. 8 oz. $10\frac{3}{5}\frac{4}{5}$ dr.; 5 *ser* = 1 *pasuri* = 7 lb. 11 oz. $6\frac{6}{7}$ dr.; 8 *pasuri* = 1 *man* = 61 lb. 11 oz. $6\frac{6}{7}$ dr. Gold and silver measure is as follows :—12 *máshá* = 1 *rati* = $1\frac{7}{8}$ gr.; 6 *rati* = 1 *aná* = $11\frac{1}{4}$ gr.; 16 *aná* = 1 *tolá* = 180 gr. Cloth measure :—8 *anguli*, or thumb-breadths = 1 *mushti* = 6 inches; 3 *mushti* = 1 *háth* or cubit = 18 inches.

Lineal distances are in this District measured by the time they occupy in travelling. The *kos*, the common measure in other parts of Bengal, is unknown here. Time measure :—60 *bipal* = 1 *pal* = $\frac{2}{5}$ of a minute; 60 *pal* = 1 *danda* = $\frac{2}{5}$ of an hour; $7\frac{1}{2}$ *danda* = 1 *prahar* = 3 hours; 8 *prahar* = 1 day of 24 hours. The *bighá* is the local land measure in one part of the District, and the *páki* in another; but these measures with their component parts vary very greatly in different Fiscal Divisions, as the following statement will show; the English equivalents for each measure is also given :—(1) In Hávilí Fiscal Division the measure is as follow :—*chhaták* = 1 yard 6 feet 39 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 6 yards 7 feet 12 inches; 20 *dhur*

= 1 *káthá* = 135 yds. 6 ft. 96 in.; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 2714$\frac{4}{5}$ yds. (2) In Hákimpur Fiscal Division the following land measure is current:—1 *chhaták* = 1 yard 6 feet 9 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 6 yards 6 feet 36 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 133 yards 8 feet; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 2678 yds. (3) Sherdiá Fiscal Division:—1 *chhaták* = 1 yd. 6 ft. 105 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 6 yards 8 feet 132 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 139 yards 7 feet 48 inches; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 2796$\frac{1}{4}$ yards. (4) Núrullapúr Fiscal Division:—1 *chhaták* = 1 yard 6 feet 37 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 6 yards 7 feet 4 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 135 yards 5 feet 80 inches; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 2712$\frac{1}{3}$ yards. (5) Kásimnagar Fiscal Division:—*chhaták* = 2 yards 2 feet 31 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 8 yards 8 feet 124 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 179 yards 6 feet 32 inches; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 3594 yards. (6) Muhabbatpur Fiscal Division:—1 *chhaták* = 8 feet 76 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 3 yards 7 feet 16 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 75 yards 7 feet 32 inches; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 1516 yards. (7) Telíhátí Fiscal Division:—1 *chhaták* = 1 yard 5 feet 9 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 6 yards 2 feet 36 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 125 yards; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 2500 yards. (8) Mukimpur Fiscal Division:—1 *chhaták* = 1 yard 5 feet 99 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 6 yards 4 feet 108 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 130 yards 5 feet; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 2611$\frac{1}{9}$ yards. (9) Jalálpur, Char Mukuńdiá, Pátpasár, Khotakpur and Baulor Fiscal Divisions:—1 *chhaták* = 2 yards 1 foot 19 inches; 4 *chhaták* = 1 *dhur* = 8 yards 4 feet 76 inches; 20 *dhur* = 1 *káthá* = 170 yards 0 feet 80 inches; 20 *káthá* = 1 *bighá* = 3401$\frac{1}{4}$ yards. In the Fiscal Divisions where the *páki* is the standard of measurement, the same difference exists in different localities. (10) In the Fiscal Divisions of Shájápur, Salímpur, and Rasidpur, the *páki* consists of six *nals* or rods long by five broad, each *nal* consisting of 15 *háths* or cubits of 18$\frac{3}{4}$ inches each. The following are the component parts of this standard of measurement, with their equivalents in English measure:—1 *rek* = 15 yards 2 feet 46$\frac{3}{4}$ inches; 4 *rek* = 1 *káni* = 61 yards 0 feet 43 inches; 30 *káni* = 1 *páki* = 1830 yards 8 feet 138 inches; 16 *páki* = 1 *khádá* = 29,296 yards. (11) In Sátair and Nasibsháhí Fiscal Divisions the *páki* consists of six *nals* long by five broad, 11 *háths* or cubits to the *nal*, and 22$\frac{1}{2}$ inches to the *háth*. The following is the measurement:—1 *rek* = 11 yards 7 feet 50$\frac{1}{4}$ inches; 4 *rek* = 1 *káni* = 47 yards 2 feet 57 inches; 30 *káni* = 1 *páki* = 1417 yards 8 feet 126 inches; 16 *páki* = 1 *khádá* =

22,687$\frac{7}{9}$ yards. (12) In Naldi Fiscal Division the *páki* and *khádá*, and their subordinate parts, are much larger than in other parts of the country. The *páki* consists of six *nals* long by five broad, each *nal* comprising 22 cubits of 34 inches each. The measurement is as follows:—1 *rek* = 107 yards 8 feet 46$\frac{3}{4}$ inches; 4 *rek* = 1 *káni* = 431 yards 6 feet 43 inches; 30 *káni* = 1 *páki* = 12,951 yards; 16 *páki* = 1 *khádá* = 207,216 yards. All calculations of area, out-turn, &c., in this Statistical Account are based on the Government standard *bighá* of 14,400 square feet, nearly equivalent to a third of an English acre.

LANDLESS DAY-LABOURERS.—No class of day-labourers exists in Farídpur neither possessing nor renting land. The higher class of husbandmen generally engage servants who cultivate their fields, as well as perform other work, and who are paid by monthly wages. Most of the servants of this class, however, have lands of their own, which during their absence are cultivated by their brothers or other near relatives. The terms on which these men work, and the system of mutual assistance in cultivating each other's lands instead of employing hired labour, have been described on a preceding page. Children are largely employed in the fields, but not the women.

SPARE LANDS.—In addition to the marshes and swamps, there is a good deal of spare land in Farídpur. Large quantities of land have of late remained untilled on account of the devastations of wild pigs. Formerly, when indigo was largely cultivated throughout the District, the wild pigs were kept down by the planters and their servants.

LANDED TENURES.—The chief landed tenures are known as *zamíndárí*, *patní* or *pattaní*, *darpatní*, *mirásh*, *darmirásh*, *katkiná*, *jot*, *hawálá*, *nimhawálá*, *shámilát táluk*, *shámilát jot*, *gánthí*, *bemiádí*, and *miádí*. The denominations of the first three of the tenures, and the rights they confer, are explained in my other District Accounts, and there is no necessity to recapitulate them. A *mirásh* is a tenure in perpetuity, and conveys to the cultivators the rights of sale, gift, or transfer. Such a tenure is not liable to enhancement of rent. A bonus or *salámí* is invariably given when a tenure of this sort is created, and the superior landlords and middlemen are very averse to granting such tenures. A *darmirásh* is a subordinate tenure to a *mirásh*, and confers the same rights. It is created by the *miráshdár*, but is liable to become null and void when the *mirásh* is sold at auction for its own arrears. *Hawálás* and *nimhawálás* are

tenures similar to the two last named, and are supposed to convey similar rights. *Jot* tenures are (1) leases which have been held at an unvarying rent from a time anterior to the Decennial Settlement, or held at an unvarying rent from the time of the Permanent Settlement, and therefore presumed to be tenures at a fixed rent; (2) holdings which, though not with a fixed rental, are yet assessable at fixed rates of rent; or (3) tenures with variable rents assessed according to fixed rules, as, for instance, the rates of rent prevailing in the neighbourhood. *Gánthí* tenure is another name for a *jot*, and is pretty extensively used towards the south of the District. *Shámilát táluks* are dependent estates that have to pay their rent or revenue through the owners of other estates, but in every other respect are independent tenures. *Shámilát jots* are in the same way dependent on the *jots* to which they are attached. *Bemiádí* leases are tenures without any limitation as to the time of holding. They are non-transferable, and are liable to enhancement. The lessee cannot dig tanks, manufacture bricks, cut trees, or sink wells, without the permission of the lessor. *Miádí* tenures are leases with a limitation of time, at the expiration of which the lessor can oust the cultivator at pleasure. This latter class of tenures is, however, gradually decreasing, as the cultivators do not like to take them. The number of *bemiádi* tenures without any stipulation as to time is proportionately increasing, probably because of the dislike of the proprietors to give *mirásh* tenures, and the equal reluctance of the tenants to accept *miádí* leases. Most of the lands of the District have by this time passed from the hands of the superior landlords into that of intermediate holders, such as *hawáládárs*, *jotdárs*, &c.

RATES OF RENT, &C.—No records exist in the Collectorate, nor can the *zamíndárs* supply any information, showing what rates of rent were prevalent in olden times, or at a period prior to the Permanent Settlement. The rates prevailing immediately before the passing of the Land Law (Act X. of 1859) were the same as those ruling at the present day, and the operation of that law does not appear to have generally affected the rates of rent current in Farídpur District. Where enhancements have taken place, they have been principally made on lands found to exceed the quantity covered by the leases, or on lands originally assessed at a lower rate than neighbouring fields of the same description and quality. I have already given a *general* statement of the present rates of rent, as reported to me by the Collector in 1871. The following return of rates for each Fiscal

Division, specially called for by the Government of Bengal in 1872, shows how these rates for the same description of land vary in different localities, according to situation, quality of soil, &c.

HAVÍLÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice lands, from 1s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. an acre; sugar-cane land, from 4s. 10½d. to 10s. 1½d. an acre; orchard land, from 4s. 10½d. to 12s. 9d. an acre; vegetable land, from 3s. 4½d. to 10s. 1½d. an acre; betel-leaf gardens, 10s. 1½d. an acre; spice land, growing turmeric, ginger, &c., 4s. 10½d. an acre.

PÁTPASÁR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, from 3s. 9d. to 5s. 7½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, from 5s. 7½d. to 11s. 3d. an acre; orchard land, from 5s. 7½d. to 11s. 3d. an acre; vegetable land, from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. an acre; *pán* or betel-leaf gardens, from 4s. 6d. to 11s. 3d. an acre; spice land, growing turmeric, ginger, &c., from 5s. 7½d. to 11s. 3d. an acre.

NASIBSHÁHÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 4s. 10½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 13s. 6d. an acre; orchard land, 8s. 3d. an acre; vegetable land, 6s. 9d. an acre; *pán* or betel land, 13s. 6d. an acre; spice land, growing turmeric, ginger, &c., 4s. 10½d. an acre.

DHULDÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 2s. 7½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 7s. 6d. an acre; orchard land, 4s. 6d. an acre; vegetable land, 3s. 9d. an acre; *pán* or betel land, 7s. 6d. an acre; and spice land, 2s. 7½d. an acre.

KHOTAKPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 8s. 3d. an acre; orchard land, 7s. 6d. an acre; vegetable land, from 5s. 7½d. to 7s. 6d. an acre; spice land, 4s. 6d. an acre.

SALESWARÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 2s. 7½d. an acre; orchard land, 11s. 3d. an acre; vegetable land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; spice land, 5s. 7½d. an acre.

SÁTAIR AND POKTÁNÍ FISCAL DIVISIONS.—Rate for rice land, 4s. 1½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 10s. 1½d. an acre; orchard land, 13s. 6d. an acre; vegetable land, 6s. 9d. an acre; *pán* or betel-leaf gardens, 16s. 10½d. an acre; spice land, 6s. 9d. an acre.

TELIHÁTÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, from 4s. 10½d. to 5s. 3d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 12s. 9d. an acre; orchard land, from 5s. 3d. to 12s. 9d. an acre; vegetable land, from 4s. 10½d. to 6s. an acre; *pán* or betel-leaf gardens, 6s. an acre; spice land, from 5s. 3d. to 9s. 9d. an acre.

MUHABBATPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 7s. 6d. an acre; orchard land, 12s. 4½d. an acre; vegetable land, 9s. 4½d. an acre.

KÁSIMPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 6s. 9d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 18s. 4½d. an acre; orchard land, 11s. 7½d. an acre; vegetable land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; *pán* or betel-leaf gardens, 13s. 10½d. an acre; spice land, 13s. 10½d. an acre.

MOKIMPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 3s. 9d. an acre; orchard land, 7s. 6d. an acre; vegetable land, 4s. 1½d. an acre.

SHÁHPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 3s. 4½d. an acre; vegetable land, 3s. 4½d. an acre.

KHARARIÁ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, orchard land, and vegetable land, 4s. 6d. an acre.

HABÍBPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land and vegetable land, 1s. 10½d. an acre.

FATHIJANGPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land and vegetable land, 1s. 6d. an acre.

KOSHÁ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 2s. 7½d. an acre; orchard land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; vegetable land, 4s. 6d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 5s. 7½d. an acre; spice land, 3s. 9d. an acre.

JALÁLPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, from 1s. 1½d. to 6s. 9d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 15s. an acre; orchard land, from 5s. 7½d. to 15s. an acre; vegetable land, from 3s. to 7s. 6d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 9s. 3d. an acre; spice land, from 8s. 3d. to 11s. 3d. an acre.

NALDÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 1s. 1½d. to 1s. 10½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 2s. 3d. to 3s. 4½d. an acre; orchard land, from 1s. 6d. to 3s. 4½d. an acre; vegetable land, from 1s. 1½d. to 1s. 7½d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, from 1s. to 5s. 3d. an acre; spice land, from 1s. 6d. to 3s. 4½d. an acre.

HÁKIMPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 5s. 3d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 5s. 3d. an acre; orchard land, 6s. 9d. an acre; vegetable land, 6s. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 6s. 9d. an acre; spice land, 5s. 3d. an acre.

CHAR MUKUNDIÁ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, from 2s. 3d. to 6s. 4½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 7s. 6d. an acre; orchard land, 10s. 1½d. to 11s. 3d. an acre; vegetable land, from 9s. 4½d. to 10s. 1½d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 11s. 3d. an acre; spice land, 11s. 3d. an acre.

KÁSIMINAGAR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, from 1s. 1½d. to 3s. an acre; sugar-cane land, 5s. 3d. an acre; orchard land, from

3s. 9d. to 6s. 4½d. an acre; vegetable land, 3s. 9d. an acre; spice land, from 2s. 7½d. to 3s. 9d. an acre.

ALÍPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 3s. 9d. an acre; orchard land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; vegetable land, 5s. 7½d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 7s. 6d. an acre; spice land, 3s. 9d. an acre.

SHERDIÁ FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 6s. 4½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 4s. 10½d. an acre; orchard land, 9s. 9d. an acre; vegetable land, 9s. 9d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 6s. 4½d. an acre; spice land, 4s. 10½d. an acre.

NASIBSHÁHÍ FISCAL DIVISION (in Goálanda Subdivision).—Rate for rice land, 4s. 1½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 6s. 9d. an acre; orchard land, 13s. 10½d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 13s. 10½d. an acre; spice land, 13s. 10½d. an acre.

MAHIMSHÁHÍ AND GANGÁPATH FISCAL DIVISIONS.—Rate for rice land, 4s. 1½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 6s. 9d. an acre; orchard land, *pán* gardens, and spice land, 13s. 10½d. an acre.

DHULDÍ FISCAL DIVISION (within Goálanda Subdivision).—Rate for rice land, 4s. 1½d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 6s. 4d. an acre; orchard land, 7s. 1½d. an acre; *pán* land, 15s. an acre.

AMÍRÁBÁD FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 3s. an acre; sugar-cane land and orchard land, 5s. 3d. an acre; spice land, 3s. an acre.

BHAR FATHIJANGPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 4s. 6d. an acre; orchard land, 12s. an acre.

SHÁJÁPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—Rate for rice land, 3s. an acre; sugar-cane land, 4s. 6d. an acre; orchard land, 9s. an acre: spice land, 3s. an acre.

ROKANPUR AND SINDURÍ FISCAL DIVISIONS.—Rate for rice land, 3s. an acre; sugar-cane land, 3s. an acre; orchard land, 6s. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 6s. an acre; spice land, 3s. 9d. an acre.

KÁSIMNAGAR FISCAL DIVISION (within Góálanda Subdivision).—Rate for rice land, from 1s. 10½d. to 3s. an acre; sugar-cane land, 12s. an acre; orchard land, 9s. an acre; spice land, 3s. an acre.

JAHANGÍRÁBÁD AND KÁNTANAGAR FISCAL DIVISIONS.—Rate for rice land, 7s. 6d an acre; sugar-cane land, 12s. an acre; orchard land, 15s. an acre; spice land, 12s. an acre.

BELGÁCHHÍ AND NASRATSHÁHÍ FISCAL DIVISIONS.—Rate for rice land, 3s. 9d. an acre; sugar-cane land, 9s. an acre; orchard land, 13s. 10½d. an acre; *pán* or betel gardens, 12s. an acre; spice land, 9s. an acre.

SHUJÁBÁD, MUHAMMADPUR, AND JAHÁNGÍRNAGAR FISCAL DIVI-

SIONS. — Rates for rice land, from 1s. 10½d. to 3s. an acre; orchard land, 7s. 10½d. an acre; spice land, 2s. 7½d. an acre.

In returning the foregoing list of rates, the Collector makes the following remarks :—"The information given has been carefully prepared, after consulting every public officer and private person likely to possess any valuable knowledge of the subject. No one has been able to state definitely the reason for the existence of a separate scale of measurement and rent for nearly every Fiscal Division in the District. It is allowed that they were made when the *párganás* were created. It is not unfrequently seen that the same kind of lands, actually contiguous, in the same Police Circle, and growing the same kind of crops, pay different rates of rent; and this is generally attributable to the proprietor of the one being powerful and exacting; or, if the rent is light, the cultivators of a village acting in combination to resist every enhancement or cess. As a rule, a weak and poor landlord must be content with low rates. When rice land is neither very high nor very low, *áus* and *áman* are generally mixed and sown broadcast, and this description fetches the highest rates. *Áus* and sugar-cane, too, are sometimes grown alternately, and the rent is then as high as for sugar-cane lands. Date-trees are grown as a border to rice-fields, as well as on homestead and in orchard lands, and no special rent is paid for them. The owners sometimes cut the trees themselves, but often let them out for the season. Pulses and cereals other than rice are sown on paddy lands in the northern and less inundated parts of the District, both before and after the rice harvest is gathered in. After the paddy is off the field, cattle are sometimes left loose to graze at will, and this tends to prevent the culture of winter cereals in some places. Where the rates for sugar-cane land appear very low, it is because the cane is of an inferior kind, which will stand inundation, and which yields comparatively little sugar."

MANURES. — The annual inundations of the Padmá and the Chandná supply sufficient deposits of fertilising silt, and little or no manure is necessary in the low-lying grounds in which the *áman* crop is cultivated. In the higher levels fit for the cultivation of *áus* rice and sugar-cane, cow-dung is used. It is not sold, but merely gathered by the husbandmen. From four to six tons of cow-dung a year are reported as ample for an acre of *áus* and sugar-cane land. In *pán* gardens, oil-cake is used as manure; thirty-five hundredweights being required for an acre—value about £3.

IRRIGATION, is not practised in the District except in lands on which *boro* and *ráidá* paddy are grown. Generally, however, these lands remain under water, and irrigation only becomes necessary when the natural supply dries up. For this purpose a narrow trench is dug from some watercourse or marsh to the field, where the water is raised by means of a hollow tree called a *don*, worked by the hand with leverage, and turning on a fulcrum formed by a mound of earth. There are no canals or artificial watercourses constructed for irrigation purposes. The cost of irrigating an acre of *boro* rice land is about six shillings per annum. Sugar-cane fields are not irrigated in this District. Rotation of crops is only practised where *áus* rice and sugar-cane are grown in alternate years on the same land. These lands are never allowed to remain fallow, but the fields in which *áus* only is grown are, in some instances, allowed to remain fallow for a year or two after every six or seven years.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.—BLIGHTS occur nearly every year, and do considerable damage, but never throughout the whole District. They affect only a few spots here and there in a large field, and the damage caused by them is not seriously felt. Blights are chiefly caused by insects and worms, which are of three different kinds; namely—(1) a kind of insect called *gaichá pharing*, about an inch or an inch and a half long, and of a blue or greyish colour; (2) a species of worm called *marichá pharing*; and (3) another species called *barshá pokú*, about an inch long, of a greyish colour, and of a soft body. This worm lives under ground during the day, and destroys the stalks of corn during the night. It is chiefly found on lands from which the waters have subsided, and at the time when the corn is nearly ripe. The sugar-cane crops are also subject to the attacks of a kind of worm called *bángá*, about half an inch in length, of a greyish colour, with a glossy head. The young plants are generally attacked when they are about a month old. Faridpur is not subject to locusts, although they occasionally visit the District. In 1862 a swarm of locusts did considerable damage, but only remained one day. No blight has occurred within the memory of the present generation on a scale large enough to affect the general prosperity of the District. In order to keep down the *gaichá pharing*, the cultivators place branches of trees in an erect position all over the field, on which the crows alight and eat up the obnoxious insects. The *marichá pharing* is got rid of in another way. A long pole or bamboo is drawn by two men over the whole field, and torments the insect till

it flies to a neighbouring plot of ground. Against the attack of the *barshá poká* there is no remedy, but the husbandmen try to avoid a great loss by reaping the harvest as quickly as possible. When the sugar-cane is attacked by the *bángá* worm, the part affected becomes a little reddish; the cultivator then makes an incision at the place, extracts the worm, and kills it.

Floods occur every year in a greater or less degree, caused by the rising of the rivers Padmá and Chandná before they enter the District. They inundate the whole District, but seldom destroy the crops. Floods rarely arise from an accumulation of rain water. In the case of an excessive rainfall, only the low lands adjoining the marshes are seriously inundated. Three times within the memory of men now living, the floods have caused a general destruction of the crops. They occurred in the years 1824, 1838, and 1871, although in the latter year the unusually high and prolonged inundation did not materially affect the final out-turn of grain. There are no embankments or other defences against the rivers in this District. Formerly, the mouths of the numerous watercourses connecting the Chandná with the marshes in the interior were dammed up by the indigo planters before the rivers began to rise, with a view to save the indigo crop from inundation. When the crop was gathered in, the husbandmen were consulted, and the dams were opened one after another as the river subsided. By these means the crops affected by the rise of the river Chandná were protected from damage. Since the collapse of the indigo factories the mouths of these watercourses are always left open, and the Collector reports that there is now a great need for such temporary embankments, in order to protect the crops. The Collector also states, that it is desirable that similar embankments should be constructed at the mouths of the Rájápur Dhalá in the Belgáchhí Police Circle, and of the Majurdiár Khál, before the Padmá begins to rise, and that after the *áman* crops in the low lands have grown to a sufficient height, they should be opened by degrees.

Drought.—The District is not subject to drought, but in some years the lateness of the setting in of the rains retards the sowings. This, however, does not seriously affect the crops, provided that the rivers do not rise suddenly before the plant has well grown; but the cultivators anxiously look out for an early fall of rain in February or March. No droughts have occurred within the memory of the present generation on a scale which affected the general prosperity

of the District. No precautions are taken against drought, nor is there any necessity for irrigation works, Faridpur being a low-lying District, and flooded every year by the rivers. Cuttings, however, are required to drain and reclaim the numerous swamps and marshes; and the Collector regrets that the large landholders, especially the family which owns the whole of the Telíhátí Fiscal Division (a very considerable portion of which remains under water throughout the year), do not perceive the advantage of opening out watercourses, so as to drain the land.

Compensating Influences in cases of Floods or Droughts.—As by far the greater portion of the District consists of low-lying lands, any failure of crops in them caused by floods is not compensated by the increased fertility of the higher levels; but on the other hand, in a year in which there is a deficiency of rainfall, the produce of the low lands can to a limited extent compensate for the failure of crops on the high ground. The price of rice in Faridpur depends to a great extent on the importations from neighbouring Districts, such as Bákarganj, Tipperah, Bogra, and Maimansinh; and a local failure of the crop is not very much felt, provided that there is no scarcity in the above-named Districts. For instance, in 1870-71, the floods destroyed nearly the whole of the crops on the low grounds, and yet the price of rice, instead of rising, fell considerably below the rates ruling during the corresponding months of the previous year.

Famine Warnings.—The maximum price of rice, &c., during the famine of 1866 was as follows:—Best cleaned rice, 12s. 3d. a hundredweight; common quality cleaned rice, 10s. 11d. a hundredweight; best unhusked rice, 6s. 1½d. a hundredweight; common unhusked rice, 5s. 5½d. a hundredweight. The Collector states that local prices have now returned to what were considered their ordinary rates before the famine. During the famine of 1866, there was no failure either of *áman* or *áus* crops in the District itself, but the heavy price of grain in the Districts adjacent to it told severely upon the people. From the experience of that year, it is the general impression that famine rates are reached when the price of rice rises to ten lbs. for a shilling, and that even with rice at thirteen or fourteen lbs. for a shilling, serious scarcity is to be apprehended. It is stated that during the famine of 1866, when the price of rice was between nine and eleven pounds for a shilling during four months, men who in ordinary times would be considered in fair circumstances were

gradually reduced to one meal a day, and the poorer classes were obliged to ask for a share of the meals of their more fortunate neighbours. In fact, many poor people had to live almost entirely upon *hilsá* fish, which was fortunately very cheap during the most pressing months. Yet the distress never reached such a pitch in Farídpur as to render relief operations on the part of Government needful. On the whole, the Collector estimates that Government interference in the shape of relief works would become necessary if the price of rice rose to the rate of eight pounds for a shilling. It is difficult to state what rates after the harvest in January and February should be considered as a warning of famine later in the year, for the District depends so much upon imported rice, that even if the rates in Farídpur were very high, any new influx of rice would at once restore the equilibrium. If, however, the supply from the neighbouring Districts fell off, and the price of grain rose to sixteen pounds for a shilling in January or February, a famine later in the year might be considered probable. A failure of the local crops alone would not cause a famine, but would produce much individual suffering. The District contains ample means of communication with other parts of the country, being bounded on all sides by large rivers, which would to a considerable extent mitigate the extremity of famine by importation from outside. The Collector reports that the construction of the following works would still further tend to prevent the isolation of the District in time of famine:—1st, a road from Goálanda to Madhukhálí *via* Hamdampur and Jamálpur; and, 2dly, another from Kanáipur to Madhukhálí.

Foreign and Absentee Landlords.—Four European landholders are registered as proprietors on the rent roll, and in 1870 paid a total land revenue of £224, 13s. 6d. Although the Muhammadans form the majority of the population, there are only 609 Musalmán proprietors in the District, paying a rental to Government of only £1485 in 1871-72 of the £27,263 which formed the total land revenue of Farídpur. By far the greater portion of the District, or about three fourths, has passed into the hands of absentee landlords.

Roads and Means of Communication.—There are only three important lines of road in Farídpur, and they are all under the management of the Magistrate of the District. (1) The Calcutta and Jessor imperial road, from the station of Farídpur to Dhuliághátá

on the Barásiá, nineteen miles in length; cost of repairs in 1870, £89, 19s. (2) The Belgáchhí road, from the town of Faríd pur to Kálínagar, sixteen miles in length; cost of repairs in 1870, £543, 5s. 2d. (3) The Talmá road, from the town to Talmá, ten miles in length; nothing was expended in repairs on this road in 1870. No large markets have lately sprung up on these lines of traffic. Every road in the District suffered seriously from the successive inundations of 1870 and 1871; the allotment for roads in 1871 being entirely spent in repairing the damages caused by the floods. All the roads, except that part of the Jessor and Calcutta road which passes through the station, were more or less under water for forty days in August and September 1871. Several bridges were also washed away, and others more or less injured by the inundation. The Eastern Bengal Railway line runs for twenty-two miles from west to east through the north of the District, having its terminus at Goálanda, at the junction of the Garai and Jamuná rivers. The extension of the railway through Faríd pur has been made so recently that no large centres of industry or important marts have yet sprung up along the line of railway. Goálanda, however, is rapidly advancing in importance. No canals exist in the District.

MANUFACTURES.—The most important manufacture of Faríd pur, and indeed the staple article of District trade, is sugar, prepared both from the juice of the date-tree, and from the cane. The following description of the mode of extracting the date-juice, and the out-turn of the produce, is taken from Colonel Gastrell's Revenue Survey Report, pp. 8, 9:—"The trees should not be tapped to extract the sap until they are six or seven years old. But the natives seldom permit them to attain that age, commencing the tapping ordinarily after the fourth, and sometimes as early as the third year. The evil consequences of this improvidence are small returns of sap, weak and sickly growth of trees, and finally their deterioration and destruction many years before they would otherwise have been exhausted. On the other hand, the advantages obtained by early tapping are quicker returns for the money laid out during the first years of the tree's growth; but these by no means compensate for the loss in after years. Tapping generally commences early in October, when the rainy season is passed, and continues until the middle of March following. Some persons continue to extract the juice still later, but the heat of the weather after that

period generally causes it to ferment so rapidly, that little or no *gur* (coarse crude sugar) can be obtained from it. The trees, moreover, require rest to recover themselves, after being deprived of so much sap for so long a period. Shortly before the regular process of tapping begins, the men employed in this work strip off the lower leaves of the tree, and make a horizontal incision close under the crown leaves, which are left untouched, through the outer bark or skin, and well into the underwood, about five or six inches in breadth by two or three inches in depth. Below this cut, the wood and bark is pared away to the length of ten or twelve inches, preserving a flat surface sloping outwards and downwards from the inside of the top cut, and forming a deep notch in the tree, down the centre of which, and from both sides sloping downwards, small grooves are scooped out of about a quarter of an inch in depth, meeting at a point. These serve to conduct the sap to a small bamboo tube which the tapper inserts at their point of junction, and below which an earthen pot is suspended to catch the juice. The sap runs all night, and is collected early in the morning in other pots by the same man who made the incision the previous night, aided by one or two boys. It is then carried away to the boiling-house, which is generally close at hand, and is at once boiled down. On the freshness of the juice and its freedom from fermentation depends the return of *gur*; it is therefore essential to collect it early in the cool of the morning, and to convey it to the boiling-house as soon as possible. In the evening the tapper revisits the trees, scrapes the surface of the cut, cleans out the grooves, and hangs up the pots that he left in the morning. He repeats this process for three days in succession, after which it is usual to give the trees a rest for three days before tapping again. In favourable weather this rule is followed throughout the season. But it is also usual to give the trees rest when fogs are heavy, or rainy weather sets in; both states of the weather operating injuriously on the flow of sap, and rendering the tree liable to rot and die, if tapping be persisted in. As a rule, only one cut is annually made in the tree; but occasionally a second incision on the opposite side may be resorted to, although this is very rarely done. These cuts are made annually, and alternately on opposite sides of the tree, the age of which may be easily determined from the number of notches. One man, with the assistance of one or two boys or women, can efficiently look after and collect the sap of sixty trees. His wages would be, on an average, from

6s. to 7s. per month during the tapping season. He and his assistants receive their food daily; and at the close of his labours he is presented with a pair of waistcloths (*dhuti*) and one pair of shoes. The life is a hard one, and not free from danger. Serious accidents sometimes happen to these men from the breaking of the rope which they loop round their bodies and the tree to aid them, first in climbing the trees, and afterwards to support them. If the rope breaks or the knot slips, nothing can possibly save the man from falling headlong backwards to the ground. Date-trees are usually rented by the score. Rates differ, but the general one appears to be three-halfpence per tree, or 2s. 6d. the score. Young trees are said to yield about eight to ten pounds of juice per diem for the first few years; sixteen pounds when in full bearing; and again only eight to ten pounds when old, or perhaps an average of about ten pounds throughout. The best and most productive, and at the same time the largest quantity of sap, is collected during the cold season in the months of December, January, and February. The colder and drier the season is, the more favourable is it for the sap-grower. If the sap be of first-rate quality and quite fresh, six pounds will boil down to about one pound of the coarsest kind of ungranulated brown sugar. But of sap of ordinary quality, from eight to ten pounds would probably be requisite to obtain that quantity of *gur*; seven pounds may therefore be taken as the average quantity of juice required to yield one pound of *gur*." The apparatus for boiling the juice into *gur* consists of a number of earthen pots, arranged in a circle over a fire in a cavity dug in the ground, and covered over with a clay roof or ceiling, having as many holes as there are pots to be inserted. The annual expenses for maintaining a hundred trees, such as rent of trees and land, wages, food and clothing of two men, pots, pans, and fuel, contingencies, &c., amount to about £8, 16s. I have several rather inconsistent reports as to the profits and other details of the manufacture. The native sugar-boilers of the District informed Colonel Gastrell that a hundred trees would produce eighty-seven hundredweights of *gur*, worth about £11, 12s., thus leaving a clear gain to the producer of £2, 16s. per annum. Other data, given by Mr S. H. Robinson in his prize essay on the cultivation of the date-tree, return the produce of a hundred trees at sixty-six hundredweights of *gur*, worth £8, 18s. 9d. This calculation only leaves a profit of 2s. 9d. per annum on a hundred trees. I believe it to be below the truth, especially at present prices. See also my Account of Jessor District.

CANE-SUGAR.—The second kind of *gur*, or crude sugar, is called *kusuri*, or *ákh gur*, and is obtained by boiling the juice of the sugar-cane. The process of extracting the juice is thus described in Colonel Gastrell's Report, page 11:—"The mill in common use ordinarily consists of two endless, coarse-threaded wooden screws, of about eight to ten inches in diameter, set vertically in two horizontal cross pieces, and firmly fixed to two uprights which are let well into the ground. These screws have their threads cut right and left, and play into each other. They are made of any hard, close-grained wood, tamarind being preferred. To the upper end of one of the screws, which projects above the horizontal bar, a long pole is attached, to which the bullocks that turn the mill are yoked. The cane is generally passed twice through the mill before being cast aside to dry for fuel. The expressed juice is received in a basin formed for the purpose below the screws. Women or boys are usually employed to feed the mill with canes and drive the bullocks." The juice which collects in the basin is then boiled down into *gur*, the process of boiling being the same as for the sap of the date-tree.

SUGAR REFINING.—The process of refining sugar is the same, whether it is obtained from the juice of the date or of the cane. The following description of the mode of manufacture is condensed from Dr Basu's report before mentioned:—Two modes of manufacturing sugar from *gur* are resorted to. By the first method, the boiled juice, in the form of *gur*, is placed in stout gunny or sackcloth bags. The molasses or refuse is squeezed out partly by twisting and tightening the mouths of the bags, and partly by laying weights upon them for additional pressure. The article thus produced is of a brownish colour. By far the largest quantity of sugar manufactured in the District, however, is prepared in a different way. The process, rather a cumbrous one, is as follows: The *gur* is at first boiled with a certain proportion of water in a large iron vessel, a quantity of diluted milk being added from time to time to separate the impurities, which are skimmed off as soon as they form on the surface. When no more skim appears, the thickened liquor is poured into a number of circular earthen pots or strainers, made wide at the top and pointed below, with a hole in the centre, called *bhárnis*, and left for two or three days in the open air to cool. It is then removed to the refining house, where the final separation of the solid crystalline portion from the treacle is effected. The straining pots are generally arranged in

rows on a bamboo frame at a certain height from the ground, and earthen pitchers are placed under each to receive the molasses as it slowly drains from the refining pot above. To complete the arrangement, as well as to quicken the operation, fresh moist leaves of a water weed called *pátá sáolá* are now placed on the top of the refining pot, and as soon as a layer of sugar from one to two inches thick is formed at the top, it is removed by scraping with the knife, fresh weed being laid on the remainder, and the same tedious process is repeated several times until the entire quantity of sugar is made. The native confectioner makes extensive use of this sugar for the purposes of his art; but before it is fit for use, it has to be clarified again by further boiling with the addition of a solution of milk as in the last process. When this is allowed to cool, it forms a hard crust, which requires to be broken and pounded before it can be employed. The molasses which drains off from the sugar in the process is employed for preparing *hookah* tobacco, inferior sorts of sweetmeats, &c., and the rest is sold for making country rum. Dr Basu estimates the total quantity of *gur* or raw sugar prepared in Farídpur District from the juice of the cane and date-tree, to be between two hundred thousand and three hundred thousand hundredweights, or from three to four *lákhs* of *maunds* per annum. [See my "Account of Jessor."]

INDIGO MANUFACTURE was formerly carried on in Farídpur to a considerable extent, but, with one exception, all the European factories have now been closed. The cultivation still carried on by the natives is so insignificant in quantity, that it can hardly be called a manufacture of the District, and no description of the process is needed here. A full account of indigo cultivation and manufacture will be found in my "Statistical Account of Nadiyá District."

JUTE is cultivated to some extent in Farídpur District, and the process of preparing the fibre is thus described in Colonel Gastrell's Revenue Survey Report, page 15:—"The plant is gathered into bundles, and steeped in the nearest watercourse or marsh until strong fermentation has set in, and the decomposition of the grainy matter of the plant allows the fibre to separate easily. The plant is then beaten and spread out on the banks to dry; and lastly, the woody parts are separated by hand labour from the fibre, which is then either stored for use or carried to the market for sale. Very little care is ordinarily taken in cleaning such fibre as may be intended for

making common cordage. But when prepared for making fishermen's nets, much more attention is paid to the process." The only other manufacture of importance in the District is that of a species of fine mat called *sítal páti*, which is much used by the upper classes during the hot-weather months. This manufacture is also extensively carried on in the District of Silhet; but that made in the Sátair Fiscal Division of Faríḍpur is of a superior texture, and is reckoned the best of its kind in India. The plants are cut lengthwise into several parts, well scraped and boiled, and then interwoven. The weaving is performed chiefly by women, and a girl who knows how to weave the mat is eagerly sought for in marriage.

THE SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE MANUFACTURING CLASSES varies in proportion to the amount of their business and the extent of their personal property; a rich man being treated with deference, while a poor one is not held in much esteem. The manufacturers, generally speaking, do not conduct their business by means of hired labour, but work for themselves. Sugar, however, is manufactured by means of hired labourers, who are paid monthly wages. One man, called a *pasárí*, is employed to examine and superintend the manufacture, and is paid at the rate of £1 per month. The inferior workmen, whose business it is to collect and boil the molasses, and do other duties of the kind, receive money wages at the rate of 6s. per mensem, besides their food, the value of the whole amounting to between 12s. and 14s. a month. With the exception of sugar, all the manufactures of the District are carried on by the people on their own account, and in their own houses. The system of advancing money for manufacturing purposes by merchants is not usual in the District, but occasionally the men employed in large sugar manufactories take their pay for six months or a year in advance. There are no cases of manufactures having died out in the District, nor any legends of ancient processes that are no longer made use of.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—The principal articles of trade are rice, pulses, oil-seeds, oil-cake, jute, molasses, made both from the juice of the date and of the sugar-cane, brown sugar, refined sugar, onions, cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts, clarified butter (*ghí*), salt, cotton twist, piece goods, iron, timber, spices, mustard, oil, mangoes, fish, oranges, potatoes, honey, paper, wines and brandy, and brass, bell-metal, and copper utensils. The more important seats of commerce are Bhángá, Gopálganj, Boálmárí, Sayyidpur, Madhukhálí, and Kámárkhálí. The minor trading villages are Jamálpur, Salímpur, Dhanchí, Godárbandar, Panchuriá,

and the station of Faríd pur. The District trade is carried on by means of permanent markets. No fairs are held in Faríd pur where trade is conducted on a large scale. The few that are held are as follows:—(1) at Sátair, held in February or March, which lasts for one day; (2) at Dhánnorá, near the Police Station of Maksúdpur, held in March or April, which also lasts for one day; (3 and 4) small fairs are also held at Dhuldí and Gujuriá, on the occasion of the great bathing festival; (5) during the great Agricultural Exhibition, at a fair held at the town of Faríd pur in the first week of January, of which mention has been made on a previous page, a brisk trade is carried on. With the exception of sugar and *gur*, which are largely exported, the local manufactures do not suffice to meet the local wants. Nearly all other articles have to be imported largely for local consumption. The imports consist of the necessaries and luxuries of life, with the exception of rice, sugar, *gur*, onions, jute, and pulses.

CAPITAL AND INTEREST.—In small loan transactions, where the borrower pawns ornaments or household vessels, the current rate of interest is 7½d. in the pound sterling per mensem, or thirty-seven and a half per cent. per annum. The lender always takes care that the articles pawned are worth at least half as much again as the amount borrowed. In large transactions, when a mortgage is given upon movable property, the rate of interest varies from twelve to eighteen per cent. per annum. In the same class of transactions, where the lender is secured by a mortgage upon houses or lands, interest is charged at the rate of from nine to twelve per cent. per annum. Petty agricultural advances to the cultivators, either upon personal security, or with a lien upon the crops, are not customary in Faríd-pur. A fair return on the purchase of a landed estate is considered to be ten per cent. per annum upon the money invested. A loan office has been established at the Civil Station of Faríd pur, and there are native banking establishments at Sayyidpur, Madhukhálí, Boálmárí, and Bhángá. None of these establishments, at the highest estimate, have a capital of more than £5000. Money is also lent by the landholders and principal merchants, and small loans are made by the village shopkeepers.

IMPORTED CAPITAL.—There are no industries in the District, such as tea factories, silk filatures, or mines, conducted with European capital or by European agency. The only indigo factory in Faríd-

pur conducted by means of European capital is one at Nakandá, and even there the manufacture is only carried on upon a small scale. The out-turn in 1869 was reported at five hundredweights of indigo. The Bábukhálí concern in Jessor District sows a small portion of land with indigo on the alluvial char lands of the Chandná in Faríḍpur District.

INSTITUTIONS.—The principal native Association in the District is a "Society for the reform of *Kulinism*, and the abolition of *pan*, or the sale of daughters in marriage," recently established in the town of Faríḍpur. The object of this institution, as its name implies, is to introduce social changes among the *Kulin* Bráhmans of the District, and to avert polygamy and the sale of daughters, which are still very prevalent. The society was started in the middle of 1870, but does not seem to have made much progress. There are no newspapers published in the District, nor are there any printing-presses. The educational and charitable institutions of Faríḍpur will be dealt with on a separate page, when treating of the administrative features of the District.

INCOME-TAX, &c.—The estimated income of Faríḍpur District, as calculated for the purposes of the Income-Tax Act of 1870, that is to say, the total of all incomes over £50 per annum, is returned at £149,080. The net proceeds of the tax, which was levied at the rate of $3\frac{1}{8}$th per cent., amounted in 1870–71 to £2802, 8s. Inthe following year, the tax was reduced to one third of its former rate, or $1\frac{1}{24}$th per cent.; the minimum rate of income liable to the cess was raised to £75, and all cultivators whose holdings did not exceed £50 per annum were exempted from the assessment. In this year, the tax realised a net sum of £877.

ADMINISTRATION.—An account of the formation of the District, and of its early administration and changes of jurisdiction, were given in the earlier pages of this Statistical Account. The District has made rapid strides under British administration, and especially so since the country passed under the Crown. No records exist in the Collectorate showing the revenue and expenditure of the District in the early years after it was separated from Dacca. The first year for which materials have been found is 1844–45. In that year, the total net revenue of Faríḍpur District amounted to £9616, 6s., and the expenditure to £6004, 4s. In 1850–51 the net revenue had increased to £10,229, 4s., and the expenditure on Civil Administration to £8374, 16s. Within the next twenty years the increase

was more marked, the net revenue having risen to £58,868, and the Civil expenditure to £25,013. During the twenty-six years, therefore, between 1844–45 and 1870–71, the revenue of Faridpur District has multiplied itself six times, while the expenditure has more than quadrupled. The following tables show the balance-sheet of the District for 1844–45, 1850–51, and 1870–71. For the latter year, however, I have given the actual receipts and expenditure for as many items as I could obtain them :—

BALANCE-SHEET OF FARÍDPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1844-45.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
1. Land Revenue	£4,250 2 0	1. Land Revenue	£269 18 0
2. Excise (*Abkári*)	1,614 4 0	2. Excise	12 4 0
3. Stamp Duties	3,572 18 0	3. Stamps	102 14 0
4. Miscellaneous	179 2 0	4. Law Charges	14 18 0
		5. Deputy Collector's Establishment	786 16 0
		6. Refund of Fines	3 14 0
		7. Interest	9 8 0
		8. Judicial Charges	4,665 16 0
		9. Miscellaneous	138 16 0
Total	£9,616 6 0	Total	£6,004 4 0

BALANCE-SHEET OF FARÍDPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1850–51.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
1. Land Revenue	£4,171 10 0	1. Land Revenue	£810 16 0
2. Excise	1,923 14 0	2. Excise	825 0 0
3. Stamps	3,950 12 0	3. Stamps	199 6 0
4. Miscellaneous	183 8 0	4. Law Charges	4 8 0
		5. Judicial Charges	5,503 8 0
		6. Revenue Charges, General	842 0 0
		7. Interest	15 10 0
		8. Miscellaneous	174 8 0
Total	£10,229 4 0	Total	£8,374 16 0

BALANCE-SHEET OF FARÍDPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1870-71.

REVENUE.				EXPENDITURE.			
1. Land Tax * (current demand for 1870-71)	£27,321	6	0	1. Collectorate Department	£3,707	2	5
2. Income Tax * (net)	2,802	8	0	2. District Share of Commissioner's Pay and Establishment	827	6	0
3. Excise	2,156	12	6	3. Excise Department	297	9	6
4. Local Funds	1,476	8	9	4. Local Funds	2,209	13	1
5. Stamp Revenue	11,980	2	3	5. Criminal Department	564	10	3
6. Registration Fees	623	11	9	6. Registration Department	323	1	2
7. Criminal Fines	429	9	3	7. Police *	6,074	6	0
8. Stamp Penalty	63	8	3	8. Civil Court Charges	1,950	3	9
9. Sale Proceeds of Unclaimed Property	8	16	0	9. Pensions Paid	261	0	10
10. Civil Court Surveyor's Fees	84	12	3	10. Interest on Promissory Notes	224	2	6
11. Civil Court Peons' Fees	6	6	3	11. Refund of Criminal Fines	21	7	3
12. Fines of Small Cause Court	0	6	0	12. Small Cause Court Charges	2,356	6	4
13. Convict Labour Fund	821	13	7	13. Jail	1,933	16	8
14. Post-Office *	723	4	5	14. Post-Office *	1,309	2	0
15. Education *	983	3	0	15. Education *	2,089	11	4
16. Miscellaneous Receipts, including Cash Remittances	9386	12	5	16. Medical *	840	0	0
				17. Subscription to Agricultural Exhibition	25	0	0
Total	£58,868	0	8	Total	£25,013	0	0

THE SUBDIVISION OF ESTATES has gone on rapidly during the last twenty years, and the number of registered proprietors or coparceners paying revenue direct to Government has greatly increased. The extension of the jurisdiction of the District renders comparison impossible as regards the actual area of estates; as regards the average revenue paid by each estate, the following facts are disclosed. In 1850 there were only 165 estates in the whole District, held by 448 registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total land revenue to Government of only £3803, 12s.; equal to an average payment of £23, 1s. 0½d. by each estate, or £8, 9s. 9½d. by each proprietor or coparcener. In 1870-71 the number of separate estates was 2307, and the registered proprietors or coparceners 3126. The total

* The items marked with an asterisk are obtained from the Departmental Annual Reports for 1870-71, and not from the Report furnished by the Collector. The figures given in the two Reports slightly differ, but, whenever practicable, I have taken them from the Departmental Returns, as being the most correct.—W. W. H.

Government land revenue in that year amounted to £27,263, being an average payment of £11, 16s. 4d. by each estate, or £8, 14s. 5d. by each registered proprietor or coparcener. The Collector reports that the general average indicated by these figures fairly represents the state of landed property in the District. The Government land revenue is collected under the provisions of Act XI. of 1859 ("An Act to improve the law relating to sales of land for arrears of revenue in the Lower Provinces"); but in the case of estates of which the Government is the proprietor, the revenue is collected, upon default being made by the lessee, by distraint, and sale of the defaulter's movable property, &c. The latest dates of payment are the 28th June, 28th September, 12th January, and 28th March in each year.

THE AMOUNT OF PROTECTION TO PERSON AND PROPERTY has also increased greatly of late years. In 1850 there were two Magisterial and eight Civil and Revenue Courts; in 1862 there were three Magisterial and nine Civil and Revenue Courts; and in 1869 there were four Magisterial and eleven Civil and Revenue Courts in the whole District, making a total of fifteen Courts. One Covenanted English Officer was at work in the District throughout that year. There are no records in existence showing the number of Courts or Covenanted Officers prior to 1850. The number of rent cases instituted under the provisions of Act X. of 1859 is as follows:—In 1861-62, 5029 original suits were instituted, besides 1544 miscellaneous applications; in 1862-63 there were 1937 original suits and 2072 miscellaneous applications; in 1866-67, 2981 original suits and 2724 miscellaneous applications; and in 1868-69, 3091 original suits and 3158 miscellaneous applications.

POLICE.—Great improvement has also taken place in the organisation of the Police Force within the last thirty years. In 1840 the force consisted of 106 foot police with 25 native officers, besides 1635 village policemen. The cost of officering this force, above the rank of head-constable, amounted to £679, 16s. In 1860, the number of policemen and officers was nearly exactly the same, but the cost of officering the force had increased to £1002. The present police force of Faridpur consists of the Regular Police, a Municipal Police, and the Village Watch. At the end of 1871 the Regular Force of the District stood as follows:—1 European superintendent, on a salary of £720 per annum; 56 subordinate officers, maintained at a total cost of £2292, or an average pay of £40, 18s. 6d. each; and 257 foot constables, maintained at a total cost of £1999, 4s., or an

average pay of £7, 15s. 6d. per head per annum. Besides these salaries, the following items are included in the cost of the Regular Police :—Travelling allowance of Superintendent, £135 ; pay and travelling allowances of office establishment, £205, 4s. ; contingencies and all other charges, £1074, 8s. The Regular Force of Faridpur District, therefore, consists of 314 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £6425, 16s. in 1871. The area of the District, as returned by the Surveyor-General in 1871, is 1524 square miles, and the population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 1,012,589 souls. According to these figures, the strength of the Regular Police as compared with the area is one man to every 4·85 square miles, and as compared with the population, one man to every 3225 of the population. The cost of maintaining this force is £4, 4s. 4d. for every square mile of area, or a fraction over 1½d. per head of the population. Attached to the Regular Police Force is a River Patrol, consisting of four boats with a crew of thirty-one men, besides four head constables and eight constables. The cost of this river police amounted to £240 in 1871, and is included in the total charge of the Regular Police. The Village Watch or Rural Constabulary not subject to the rules of the Regular District Police, amounted in 1871 to 2026 men, receiving a total pay of £7658, 4s., contributed by the landholders and villagers, or an average pay of £3, 15s. 7d. per man per annum. According to the area and population of the District, this sum represents a charge of £5, os. 6d. per square mile, or just over 1¾d. per head of the population. The strength of the force is one man to every ·75 square miles, or one to every 500 of the population. Each rural watchman has on an average seventy-seven houses under his charge. The Municipal Police is a small force for the watch and ward of the two municipal towns, Faridpur and Sayyidpur, and consists of one officer and nineteen men, maintained at a cost of £147, 12s. from local sources. Including the Regular Force, the Municipal Police, and the Village Watch, the total Police Force of Faridpur consists of 2360 men of all ranks, being one man to every 0·64 square miles of area, or one man to every 429 of the population. The total cost of protecting person and property in Faridpur District, therefore, is £14,231, 12s., or £9, 6s. 9d. per square mile of area, or nearly 3⅜d. per head of the population. During the year 1870, the police conducted 851 cognisable cases, in which they obtained 385 convictions, or forty-five per cent. of convictions to the cases. The total number of cognisable and

non-cognisable cases conducted by the Police in 1870 was 929, the proportion of convictions being 68·2 per cent. In serious cases they were pretty successful: two murders were committed during the year, and detection followed in both instances; out of five cases of gang-robbery, three were detected. The value of property stolen in 1870 was reported to be £1277, of which property to the value of £386, 10s., or 30·2 per cent. was recovered. In 1871, 1110 cognisable and 2946 non-cognisable cases were conducted by the Police, the percentage of final convictions to men brought to trial being 56·1.

CRIMINAL CLASSES.—The Inspector-General of Jails in his Report for 1868 states that the chief crimes committed in this District are murders, gang-robberies, thefts, rioting, and unlawful assemblies. Gang-robberies are generally committed by Chandáls, or such of the lower order of Káyasths as have no fixed occupation, and who, being ashamed to follow trades or to cultivate land, derive a precarious subsistence by gang-robberies and thefts. The great rivers Padmá, Ariál Khán, and Madhumatí afford great facility for the commission of river robberies. Murders are generally committed by the Musalmáns of the lower classes. Farídpur being a District where clubmen are found, rioting, and affrays, and unlawful assemblies are in consequence more numerous than in other parts of the country. These clubmen, or *láthiáls*, belong for the most part to the Musalmáns, Chandáls, and Bhuimálís.

The following figures, showing the number of prisoners admitted into and discharged from the Farídpur jail, proportion of sickness and mortality, &c., for the years 1857–58, 1860–61, and 1870, are compiled from statistics furnished to me by the Inspector-General of Jails, Lower Provinces. The figures given for the years 1857–58 and 1860–61, however, must only be accepted as approximate to correctness. Owing to a faulty method of preparing the returns in former years, many prisoners were entered twice over, under-trial prisoners subsequently convicted being entered under both heads. It is impossible now to correct the error, and the figures for the years prior to 1870 must be accepted with caution, and as only approximating to accuracy. A new system of preparing the returns was introduced in 1870, and the figures given for that year may be taken as absolutely correct.

In 1857–58, the daily average number of prisoners in Farídpur jail was returned at 344, the total number of prisoners admitted

into jail during the year being returned at 860. The number discharged from jail in that year was as follows:—Transferred, 78; released, 830; escaped, 6; deaths, including 2 executed, 4; total number discharged, 918. The admissions to hospital amounted to 145·93, and the deaths in hospital to 0·58 per cent. of the mean jail population. In 1860–61 the daily average number of prisoners was 385, the total number of prisoners admitted being 687. The discharges were as follow:—Transferred, 18; released, 617; escaped, 6; died, 22; total discharged, 663. The admissions to hospital amounted to .248·83 and the deaths to 5·71 per cent. of the mean jail population. In 1870 the daily average number of prisoners was 315, or one criminal always in jail to every 3214 of the population. The total number admitted during the year amounted to 683, the average term of residence of each prisoner in jail being 233 days. The prisoners discharged in 1870 were as follow:—Transferred, 6; released, 637; escaped, 4; died, 9; total discharged, 656. The admissions to hospital in 1870 amounted to 104·76 per cent., and the deaths to 2·86 per cent. of the mean prison population. An unusual number of deaths occurred in the jail in 1868. This, the Inspector-General reports, was attributable partly to the dampness of the tiled walls of the jail from constant leakage, at times drenching the inmates when locked up for the night; partly to over-crowding, which continued during a part of the year; partly to the rains having ceased too early; and lastly, to the fact that sixteen per cent. of the admissions of the year were men in bad health. A few were old and decrepid on admission, and five of the deaths were cases of old men upwards of sixty years of age.

The cost of maintenance, rations, clothing, and all other charges, excluding cost of Police Guard, amounted to £4, 11s. 2d. per head in 1857–58; £3, 17s. 2d. per head in 1860–61; and £4, 17s. 2d. per head in 1870. The cost of the prison Police Guard in 1870 amounted to £1, 8s. 11d. per head of the jail population. The gross cost to Government of the Faridpur jail, inclusive of the Police Guard over prisoners, amounted in 1870 to £1836, 14s. Deducting the cost of the jail Police, which is included in the general Police Budget of the District, the cost of the jail amounted to £1416. A certain proportion of the cost of the jail, however, is covered by the value of the prisoners' labour. Manufactures have been carried on in the Faridpur jail for a period of thirty years. In 1857–58 the net profit

from prison manufactures amounted to £109, 5s. 4d., or an average earning of 15s. 6d. from each prisoner employed in manufactures. In 1860–61 the prison industries yielded a profit of £254, 7s. 2d., or an average earning of £1, 1s. 2d. from each prisoner employed in manufactures. In 1870 jail manufactures yielded a profit of £65, 5s. 4d., the average earning of each prisoner actually employed on manufactures being £1, 0s. 4¾d. The hard-labour prisoners in the Faridpur jail are mostly employed in cloth or gunny making, gardening, husking rice, making bamboo or rattan articles. Deducting the profit derived from the prisoners' labour in 1870, the net cost to Government of the Faridpur jail in 1870 amounted to £1771, 9s. inclusive of the cost of the jail Police Guard, and to £1350, 15s. exclusive of the cost of the jail Guard.

EDUCATION has not as yet made much progress among the people. The following remarks are condensed from a recent report by the Collector of the District, published in the Report of the Educational Department for 1871–72 :—Both the Muhammadans who inhabit the north, and the Chandáls who principally dwell in the south, and who form nearly the whole native population of the District, are averse to education; the former from prejudice against teaching which does not assimilate with their religion. The latter are an outcast Hindu sect, who, from a long course of oppression and dependence, have a tradition that they must do and live as their forefathers before them. Unfortunately the middle class in this District, excepting in the north, is very poor, and although numbers are anxious to send their children to school, they have not the means to set up schools without help. Five new schools have been started, but they only live in the hope that Government will ultimately help them. Moreover the richer of the landlords are absentees, and the subdivision and sub-infeudation of landed property has done much to create a number of poverty-stricken men who call themselves *tálukdárs*, who are ashamed to dig, and remain a check to all progress or improvement, living from hand to mouth on the miserable pittance their inheritance provides. Pángsá, Goálanda, and perhaps Belgáchhí, form an exception to these remarks. Persons who are not connected with the land are tradèrs and money-lenders, and these, probably the richest residents of the District, are as a rule a very miserly, penurious class, who consider their children only require to obtain the small acquaintance with writing and arithmetic necessary to keep shop. Such men send their children to sugar-factories,

where, in exchange for their labour, the overseer gives them some little idea of reading, writing, and accounts. Amongst the Muhammadans, every landed proprietor of the least pretensions keeps a *munshi*, on a salary of two or three shillings a month in addition to his food and clothing. This man teaches the children of the house and a few outsiders, but the education he imparts is small in amount, and of the most useless character. The *Kurán* is read in Arabic, a language their teacher understands little or nothing of; and their time is wasted in getting by heart sentences of which they do not know the meaning, and in learning to read pages of a book which they do not understand. Our grant-in-aid system only reached the middle classes, until Sir George Campbell's reforms in 1872 extended education to the whole people. The upper classes are opposed to the lower orders being taught at all. The Bráhmans and Káyasths deem education to be strictly their inheritance; and in losing the co-operation of the wealthy classes, Government unavoidably fails to reach the ordinary cultivator; for however much the latter may be oppressed, he looks to the former to interpret every action of the foreign race which rules him.

The Collector is of opinion that the only way to reach the lower strata is for Government to make education compulsory, and to insist upon all teachers being licensed. He thinks that the objections of the Muhammadans to send their children to school would be removed if the certificated teacher was a member of their own faith. With regard to the Chandáls, the barrier would be broken if education were offered free of charge. One difficulty in any educational operations in Faridpur is the physical condition of the country during a great part of the year, when the District is more or less covered with water. In the southern tracts, the inundations render it impossible to move about except in boats, and a poor family which may own only one skiff, requires it to go to market, and to carry on the daily avocations of its principal members. Another recommendation made by the Collector is that civil engineering should be taught in the higher schools, and scholarships granted tenable in the Calcutta Civil Engineering College.

The total number of Government and aided schools in Faridpur District in 1856–57 was 10, attended by 602 pupils; in 1860–61 the number of these schools had increased to 30, with 1421 scholars; and in 1870–71 the Government and aided schools had further increased to 52, attended by a total of 2000 scholars. Govern-

ment expenditure on education has increased from £344, 2s. 6d. in 1856–57 to £846, 15s. 5d. in 1870–71; the amount of private contributions, subscriptions, fees, &c., to the Government and aided schools increasing from £275, 6s. 9d. to £872, 15s. 4d. within the same period. The following table, compiled from the reports of the Education Department, gives the number of schools of each description, number and religion of pupils, cost of each to Government, and amount subscribed by private contributions, subscriptions, &c., for the years 1856–57, 1860–61, and 1870–71. It must be remembered, however, that it only includes Government and aided schools, and not any private schools not under inspection by the Education Department.

The table on the opposite page is exclusive of Government and aided schools in Pángsá Police Circle, recently added to Farídpur. The Educational Report for 1871–72 gives ten schools in this tract attended by 342 scholars. The cost to Government for these schools amounted to £109, 10s., the amount derived from subscriptions, fees, &c., being £110, 7s. 8d., the total outlay on the ten schools being £293, 10s. 6d. Adding these figures to the following table, we have now a total of 62 Government and aided schools in Farídpur District, attended by a total of 2342 scholars. The total cost to Government was £956, 5s. 5d.; the amount derived from private sources, schooling fees, &c., being £983, 3s.; and the total outlay on the 62 schools, £2089, 11s. 4d. As before stated, no statistics exist from which the number of schools not under inspection by the Educational Department can be gathered, nor any information as to the number of pupils, or cost of education in these private schools.

Sir George Campbell's Reforms, 1872.—The General Report on Public Instruction in Bengal for 1872–73 affords an important indication of the valuable consequences that may be anticipated to follow in the course of the next few years from the resolution dated September 30, 1872. This report only extends over six months of the period during which the new system came into operation, but both in the results actually achieved, and in the tendencies disclosed, it shows that the main obstacles to the progress of primary education alluded to in a previous page are now in process of being removed. The Inspector of Schools reports with reference to Farídpur, that "the Chandáls are willing to accept education if Govern-

[*Sentence continued on page 352.*]

RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN FARÍDPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1856–57, 1860–61, AND 1870–71.

Classification of Schools.	Number of Schools.			Pupils.											Cost to Government.			Private Contributions, Subscriptions, Fees, &c.			Total Cost.		
				Hindus.			Musalmáns.			Others.			Total.											
	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.	1856–57.	1860–61.	1870–71.
															£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Government English Schools	1	1	1	118	94	136	8	4	5	1	...	...	127	98	141	250 12 5	274 14 6	261 8 6	134 5 5	87 6 5	184 19 7	384 17 10	376 8 4	446 8 2
Government Vernacular School,	...	...	1	...	...	19	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	20	...	...	18 14 0	...	...	5 17 0	...	...	24 11 0
Aided English Schools,	4	9	14	155	368	659	24	39	89	...	...	1	179	407	740	51 6 0	115 7 0	208 19 11	75 16 3	165 16 6	368 0 7	105 11 2	246 11 6	619 11 9
Aided Vernacular Schools,	5	20*	33	214	675	963	82	74	93	...	...	...	296	916	1056	42 4 1	169 3 1	332 1 0	65 5 1	213 10 1	268 6 2	94 0 4	365 9 3	616 7 11
Aided Girls' Schools,	...	...	3	...	...	35	...	...	3	...	...	5	...	...	43	...	...	25 12 0	...	...	45 12 0	...	...	*89 2 0
Total,	10	30	52	487	1137	1803	114	117	191	1	...	6	602	1421	2000	344 2 6	559 4 7	846 15 5	275 6 9	466 13 0	872 15 4	584 9 4	988 9 1	1796 0 10

* Details for two aided Vernacular Schools not given; no information as to expenditure, or the proportion borne by Government as compared with that contributed from other sources; the total number of pupils is only given, without any classification according to religion. The total cost of schools for that year, therefore, will somewhat exceed the amount shown in the table, and the total number of pupils will not agree with the classified columns of Hindus, Musalmáns, &c., for 1860.

[*Sentence continued from page* 350.]

ment provides it for them, and that there is practically no limit to the number of schools that may be set up except the length of the Government purse. The low-class Muhammadans also accept education gratefully." The figures entirely bear out these hopeful remarks. The number of schools in this District during the year 1872–73 increased from 65 to 176, and the number of pupils from 2653 to 6497; while both the gross expenditure and the Government expenditure have absolutely diminished. The boys at schools under return are now about 6 per 1000 of the entire population. Out of the 4080 new pupils brought under regular public instruction by Sir G. Campbell's measures, only 1222 could read and write at the end of the fiscal year, after tuition varying from one to two months, and 2858 are still almost totally ignorant. These figures do not, of course, represent what will be the ultimate outcome of the new system. To those, however, who appreciate the importance of systematic education, it is cheering to observe that 1315 Musalmán boys are already attending at the new *pát sálás*, whereas in 1871 the number of Musalmáns in all the Government and aided schools in the District was only 191. Active measures also are being taken to push out pioneer schools among the Chandáls, whose present position the Inspector describes as "almost schoolless." Out of a total population of more than 156,000 of this curious race in Faríḍpur, less than 200 boys are, according to these returns, to be found at school.

Postal Statistics.—The increased use made of the Post-office during late years is another indication of the progress which the District has made under British rule. The number of letters, newspapers, parcels, &c., received at the Faríḍpur Post-office has nearly doubled since 1861–62, while the postal revenue has more than doubled. The following table shows the number of letters, newspapers, &c., received at and despatched from the Faríḍpur Post-office in 1861–62, 1865–66, and 1870–71 :—

POSTAL STATISTICS OF FARÍDPUR DISTRICT IN 1861–62, 1865–66, AND 1870–71.

	1861–62.	1865–66.	1870–71.
Service letters received,	9,118	10,581	...
Private letters received,	40,457	35,864	...
Total letters received,	49,575	46,445	87,352*
Service newspapers received,	184	309	...
Private newspapers received,	5,709	5,293	...
Total newspapers received,	5,893	5,602	3,754
Service parcels received,	822	403	...
Private parcels received,	905	517	...
Total parcels received,	1,727	920	534
Total books received,	547	746	1,297
Service letters despatched,	10,628	11,114	...
Private letters despatched,	49,152	44,375	...
Total letters despatched,	59,780	55,489	...
Total newspapers despatched,	621	459	†
Service parcels despatched,	572	564	...
Private parcels despatched,	156	136	...
Total parcels despatched,	728	700	...
Total books despatched	84	52	...
Postal revenue,	£334 2 11	£366 13 1	£723 4 5‡
Postal expenditure,	£107 3 8	£611 8 2	£1,309 2 0

FISCAL DIVISIONS.—The number of villages or rural communes in Farídpur District in 1870 was returned at 1780 by the Collector. According to the results of the Survey Officers (1856–63) there were 2013 villages with a population of 219 souls to each. The Census of 1872 returned the number at 2307 each, containing an average population of 439 souls. The only two towns in the District whose population was estimated by the Collector in 1870 to exceed 2000 souls, were the Civil Station of Farídpur and Sayyidpur.* The Census Report, however, returns twenty-eight towns or villages as containing a population of upwards of 2000 souls. The number of Fiscal Divisions in the District is variously estimated. In the Board of Revenue Statistics of Area, Revenue and Population, a list is given

* The returns for 1870–71 do not distinguish between service and private letters.

† No return has yet been received of the letters, newspapers, &c., despatch in 1870–71.

‡ Exclusive of £30, 4s. 8d. derived from the sale of service stamps for o correspondence. Prior to 1866, this item was included in the general revenue.

of the following forty-three Fiscal Divisions, showing the area, number of estates, amount of land revenue, &c., of each :—

(1.) AMRÁPUR, area 34 acres, or 0·5 square miles; contains 1 estate, and pays an annual Government revenue of £3, 2s.

(2.) AMÍRÁBÁD, area 4240 acres, or 6·62 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £266, 10s.

(3.) AMÍRNAGAR, or AMINNAGAR, area 2517 acres, or 3·93 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £115, 14s.

(4.) BAIKUNTHPUR, area 4106 acres, or 6·41 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £246, 16s.

(5.) BÁKÍPUR, area 136 acres, or 0·21 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £9, 14s.

(6.) BAULAR, area 47 acres, or 0·07 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, 8s.

(7.) BANDARKHOLÁ, area 447 acres, or 0·69 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £128, 12s.

(8.) BELGÁCHHÍ, area 20,866 acres, or 32·60 square miles; 28 estates; land revenue, £795, 4s.

(9.) BINODPUR TAPPÁ, area not mentioned; 1 estate; land revenue, £4.

(10.) BIRÁHIMPUR, area 9087 acres, or 14·19 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £277, 12s.

(11.) BÍRMOHAN, area 29,203 acres, or 45·63 square miles; 602 estates; land revenue, £955, 14s.

(12.) DHULDÍ, area 36,958 acres, or 57·74 square miles; 59 estates; land revenue, £1044, 4s.

(13.) FATHIJANGPUR, area not mentioned; 19 estates; land revenue, £159, 2s.

(14.) GANGÁPATH, area 32 acres, or 0·05 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £226, 10s.

(15.) HÁKIMPUR, area 14,017 acres, or 21·90 square miles; 32 estates; land revenue, £824, 4s.

(16.) HÁVILÍ, area 2820 acres, or 4·40 square miles; 131 estates; land revenue, £118, 16s.

(17.) JAHÁNGÍRNAGAR, area 75 acres, or 0·11 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £4, 2s.

(18.) JALÁLPUR, area 67,058 acres, or 104·77 square miles; 687 estates; land revenue, £1341.

(19.) KÁSHTHASÁGARÁ, area 287 acres, or 0·44 square miles; 1 land revenue, £1.

(20.) KÁSIMNAGAR, area 4824 acres, or 7·53 square miles; 22 estates; land revenue, £222, 8s.

(21.) KOSHÁ, area 7 acres, or 0·01 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, 8s.

(22.) MAHIMSHÁHÍ, area 5866 acres, or 9·16 square miles; 27 estates; land revenue, £217, 10s.

(23.) MAHMUDPUR, area 2774 acres, or 4·33 square miles; 114 estates; land revenue, £155, 14s.

(24.) MUBARAKPUR UJIÁL, area 30 acres, or ·04 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £3, 10s.

(25.) MUKIMPUR, area 4858 acres, or 7·59 square miles; 8 estates; land revenue, £54, 8s.

(26.) NALDÍ, area 41,721 acres, or 65·18 square miles; 104 estates; land revenue, £756, 2s.

(27.) NASIBSHÁHÍ, area 2851 acres, or 4·45 square miles; 97 estates; land revenue, £1960, 16s.

(28.) NASRATSHÁHÍ, area 121 acres, or ·18 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £5.

(29.) NÚRULLÁPUR, area 1339 acres, or 2·09 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £69, 4s.

(30.) PÁTPASÁR, area 1265 acres, or 1·97 square miles; 28 estates; land revenue, £133, 16s.

(31.) POKTÁNÍ, area not mentioned; 1 estate; land revenue, £205, 8s.

(32.) RÁJNAGAR, area 814 acres, or 1·27 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £35, 14s.

(33.) ROKANPUR, area 240 acres, or ·37 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £14, 10s.

(34.) RUPAPÁT TARAF, area 18,598 acres, or 29·05 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £1003, 2s.

(35.) SHÁJÁPUR, area 140 acres, or ·21 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £1, 2s.

(36.) SÁTAIR, area 82,324 acres, or 128·63 square miles; 86 estates; land revenue, £4576, 18s.

(37.) SHÁHPUR TAPPÁ, area 542,107 acres, or 847·04 square miles; 49 estates; land revenue, £3766.

(38.) SHERDIÁ, area 1190 acres, or 1·85 square miles; 18 estates; land revenue, £53.

(39.) SINDURÍ, area 1338 acres, or 2·09 square miles; 8 estates; land revenue, £23, 16s.

(40.) SULTÁNPUR KHÁRARIÁ, area 6445 acres, or 10·07 square miles; 14 estates; land revenue, £21, 12s.

(41.) TELÍHÁTÍ, area 105,947 acres, or 165·64 square miles; 24 estates; land revenue, £1570, 4s.

(42.) TELÍHÁTÍ AMÍRÁBÁD, area 7144 acres, or 11·16 square miles; 77 estates; land revenue, £213, 18s.

(43.) TELÍHÁTÍ MUHABBATPUR, area 7442 acres, or 11·62 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £408, 10s.

Total area 1,031,315 acres, or 1611·42 square miles; 2287 estates; land revenue, £21,994, 14s. The difference between these totals and those given in the paragraph on the Land Tax is due to alterations of boundary, &c., since these statistics for the Fiscal Divisions were drawn up. Nearly all these Fiscal Divisions are permanently settled.

The list of Fiscal Divisions furnished to me by the Collector differs, with regard to numbers, very considerably from the above. Two or more Fiscal Divisions are sometimes included in one in the Board of Revenue's Statistics. The list furnished by the Collector numbers seventy Fiscal Divisions, as follow:—(1) Amrápur, (2) Amrápur Tappá, (3) Amírnagar, (4) Amírábád, (5) Aurangábád Tappá, (6) Baikunthpur, (7) Bákípur, (8) Bákípur Tappá, (9) Bandarkholá, (10) Baular, (11) Belgáchhí, (12) Bikrampur, (13) Birálimpur, (14) Bírmohan, (15) Chándpratáp, (16) Char Mukundiá, (17) Dhuldí, (18) Durgápur, (19) Fathiábád, (20) Fathijangpur, (21) Gangápath, (22) Garwárish, (23) Hákimpur, (24) Hávilí, (25) Hávilí Tappá, (26) Ichhápur Tappá, (27) Ishakábád, (28) Islámpur, (29) Jafar Ujiál, (30) Jahángírnagar, (31) Jalálpur, (32) Kálná, (33) Káshthaságará, (34) Kásimnagar, (35) Kásimpur Kalyán Srí, (36) Kásimpur Telíhátí, (37) Khánpur, (38) Khargapur, (39) Koshá, (40) Lashkarpur, (41) Mahimsháhí, (42) Mahmúdpur, (43) Mubárak Ujiál, (44) Muhabbatpur, (45) Mukimpur, (46) Naldí, (47) Nasibsháhí, (48) Nasratsháhí, (49) Núrullápur, (50) Pátpasár, (51) Poktání, (52) Rájnagar, (53) Rokanpur, (54) Ságardí, (55) Shájápur, (56) Sáleswarí, (57) Salímpratáp, (58) Salímpur, (59) Sátair, (60) Sherdiá, (61) Shafípur, (62) Sháhpur Tappá, (63) Shujábád, (64) Shujábád Kutabpur, (65) Sindurí (66) Sonárgáon, (67) Sultánpratáp, (68) Sultánpur Khararíá, (69) Telíhátí, (70) Telíhátí Muhabbatpur.

SUBDIVISIONAL ADMINISTRATION.—Farídpur District contains only two Subdivisions, viz., the Headquarters or Sadr Subdivision, and the Goálanda Subdivision. The Headquarters Subdivision comprises

the seven Police Circles (*thánás*) of Faridpur, Bhúshná, Awánpur, Sadrpur, Deorá, Maksúdpur, and Gopálganj. It contains an area of 1067 square miles, 1381 villages or townships, 107,793 houses, and a total population of 709,451 souls. The Muhammadans number 200,306 males and 208,130 females; total 408,436, or 57·6 per cent. of the subdivisional population. Proportion of Muhammadan males to total Musulmáns, 49·0 per cent. The Hindus number 144,456 males and 154,272 females; total, 298,728, or 42·1 per cent. of the subdivisional population. Proportion of Hindu males to total Hindu population, 48·4 per cent. The Christian population consists of 210 males and 190 females; total 400, or ·1 per cent. of the subdivisional population. Proportion of Christian males to total Christian population, 52·5 per cent. Other denominations comprise 869 males and 1018 females; total 1887, or ·2 per cent. of the total population. Proportion of males, 46·1 per cent. Average pressure of subdivisional population per square mile, 665; average number of villages or townships per square mile, 1·29; average number of persons per village, 514; average number of houses per square mile, 101; average number of inmates per house, 6·6.

GOÁLANDA SUBDIVISION consists of the three Police Circles (*thánás*) of Goálanda, Belgáchhí, and Pángsá, and comprises an area of 429 square miles, 926 villages or townships, 49,725 houses, and a total population of 303,138 souls. The Muhammadans number 91,969 males and 87,894 females; total 179,863, or 59·4 per cent. of the subdivisional population. Proportion of Muhammadan males to total Musulmáns, 51·1 per cent. The Hindus number 59,599 males and 62,661 females; total 122,260, or 40·3 per cent. of the subdivisional population. Proportion of Hindu males to total Hindus, 48·7 per cent. The Christians number 47 males and 16 females; total 63. Proportion of males, 74·6 per cent. Other denominations consist of 398 males and 554 females; total 952, or ·3 per cent. of the subdivisional population. Proportion of males 41·8 per cent. Average pressure of subdivisional population, 706 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 2·16; average number of persons per village, 327; average number of houses per square mile, 116; average number of inmates per house, 6·1.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.—The climate of Faridpur is, like that of other Districts of Eastern Bengal, very damp, and not suited to persons with a tendency to rheumatism or subject to coughs. The sea-

sons are divided into the rainy, the cold, and the hot weather. The rains generally set in early, often at the end of April, and by the end of June the greater part of the District is under water. The cold weather commences from the beginning of November, or a little later, and continues till the middle or latter end of February. The hot weather begins in March, and lasts till the commencement of the rains. The average annual rainfall for the ten years ending 1868, is stated by the Civil Medical Officer of the District to be 85·42 inches. The average temperature for the same period is said to be as follows:—Mean temperature at sunrise, 73·56; mean at 10 A.M., 78·03; mean at 4 P.M., 80·50; mean at 10 P.M., 75·58.

MEDICAL HISTORY: ENDEMIC DISEASES.—The diseases principally met with in Farídpur are, as may be expected, fevers of a malarial or paludial origin, of which the forms most prevalent are quotidian and tertian ague; the remittent and continued forms are extremely rare. These fevers are, as a general rule, considered as a single disease, and usually increase in intensity at the time of the first setting in of the rains, becoming more and more severe as the season advances, until they assume their highest intensity and development about, or soon after, the cessation of the rains, in October or November. The attacks then gradually become milder through the remainder of the cold season and the ensuing spring and hot weather, till the next rains, when the malaria seems to receive a new impulse, and so on in every succeeding year. The first fevers in the cycle are of the mildest ague kind, seldom remittent or continued, and generally complicated with catarrhal affections. Rheumatic fevers, of a purely malarial origin, are also occasionally met with about this season. The attacks which follow these in July, August, and September are of a more severe character, the fever being generally high and of longer duration, often setting in as a remittent of a continued type, or assuming one or other of these forms in the course of its progress. The next seizures in the series, which occur in October and November, are almost always paroxysmal, and they are apt to be complicated with enlargement of the spleen and liver, with other subsequent organic diseases, if neglected. During the remaining months, the few cases of ague which present themselves are, generally speaking, slight and uncomplicated. No sanitary or other efforts, such as the drainage of swamps, increased cultivation, clearance of jungle, &c., have been carried out in recent times, so as to reduce the extent of the prevailing diseases.

EPIDEMICS.—Epidemics seldom occur in Farídpur District, and no epidemic sickness of any kind made its appearance in 1869. Sporadic cases of cholera are, however, met with all over the District during the hot-weather months. Choleraic diarrhœa is also very common about this season. In January and February 1869 an epidemic broke out among the cattle in a few villages near Farídpur city, causing considerable mortality. No record was kept of the death-rate, but the Civil Surgeon is of opinion that at least two thirds of the affected animals succumbed to the disease, and that not less than a hundred head of cattle were thus carried away in the three villages which principally suffered.

MEDICAL CHARITIES.—The Padamdí Branch Dispensary, established in June 1867, is situated in the Goálanda Subdivision, and is under the charge of a native doctor. The number of outdoor patients treated in 1871 was 1078 against 922 in the previous year. The local income amounted to £35, 16s. against £34, 2s. in 1870, and was sufficient to meet the expenses of the Dispensary. This is the only medical charity in the District.

NATIVE PRACTITIONERS.—There are a very few good native practitioners (*Kabirájs*) in the District. But the majority of them (of whom one or two may be met with in almost every large village) appear to have degenerated into mere quacks. The remedies used by the *Kabiráj* are cold sedatives, relaxants, depressants, and cooling agents generally; dry astringents, absorbents, &c.; warm tonics, carminatives, &c.; hot stimulants, condiments, &c., and moist diluents, demulcents, watery food, &c. There is not a mineral to be found in Bengal, nor an indigenous drug of any efficacy, which has not a place in their pharmacopœia. Mercury is sparingly employed by them. Metallic tonics, especially oxides of gold, silver, and iron, are largely resorted to in chronic ailments. The celebrated *bísh bari*, or poison pills, are also administered in low fevers. Arsenic and opium, with doses of *pánchan* (a thick febrifugal infusion of a number of drugs), are their sheet-anchor in all ordinary fevers. In dysentery and diarrhœa, *kutráj*, bark of Wrightea antidysenterica, dried pulp of *bel* fruit, mango stones, &c., are largely had recourse to. These village *Kabirájs* follow no particular system. They use quinine and some few European medicines freely, especially those of the purgative class. Salivation by mercury is their last resource in all forms of chronic disease, except splenetis. In all minor and undefined ailments, issues are a favourite application with the *Kabiráj*; they are generally

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inserted in the middle of a leg or arm, and are sometimes kept open for months.

INDIGENOUS DRUGS.—No minerals from which drugs are made are indigenous to the District. *Mom* (Cera flava) is made into an ointment, and used as an emollient. The bázár drugs are thus given by the Civil Surgeon :—(1) *Báblár átá* (Acacia arabica); the gum is an excellent substitute for gum-arabic, and is used as a demulcent. (2) *Supári* (Areca catechu); a solution given as a demulcent. (3) *Bel* (Ægle marmelos); the pulp made into sherbet is given as an astringent, nutritive, and tonic. (4) *Mádár* (Calotropis gigantea); the bark of the root reduced to powder forms a tolerably effective substitute for ipecacuanha. (5) *Lál marich* or *lanká* (Capsicum annuum); used as a stimulant and carminative. (6) *Bhát* (Clerodendron infortunatum); an infusion or decoction of dried leaves, used as a tonic, vermifuge, antiperiodic, and febrifuge. (7) *Nárikel* or cocoa-nut (Cocos nucifera); the oil used as an emollient. (8) *Golancha* (Tinospora cordifolia); an extract made from the stem of the plant is used as a tonic; it is best used in the convalescent form of fevers and other diseases. (9) *Kachu* (Colocasia esculenta); the fresh juice is a powerful styptic in external hæmorrhage from cuts and wounds. (10) *Anantamúl* (Hemidesmus indicus); a decoction made from the root is given as an alterative, tonic, diaphoretic, &c., and is a good substitute for sarsaparilla. (11) *Madhu* or honey (mel); a demulcent. (12) *Lál chitá*, or red lead (Plumbago rosea); a plaster, used as a rubifacient and vesicant. (13) *Til* (Sesamum orientale); the pulp of the seeds powdered up and taken with sugar is a mild laxative for habitual constipation. (14) *Rái sarishá* or mustard; a plaster, used as a stimulant and rubifacient. (15) *Hará haritaki* (Terminalia chebula); a powder, given as a laxative, alterative, and tonic. (16) *Indrajab* (Wrightea antidysenterica); the seeds and bark used as a tonic and astringent. (17) *Sunt* or dried ginger (Zinziber officinalis); a powder, given as a stimulant. Many other vegetable drugs may be bought in the bázárs, but they are not indigenous to the District. I trust to the Civil Surgeon for the scientific nomenclature, verified to the best of my power.

CONSERVANCY, &c.—Act VI. of 1868, passed by the Council of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, was introduced into the town of Faríd-pur in April 1868, and since then all matters relating to the conservancy and improvement thereof are managed by a Town Committee, of which one third are official members, with the Magistrate of the

District presiding as Chairman. The roads and drains are kept in very fair order; nuisances are prevented as far as possible; and the water supply is carefully conserved as regards the public tanks. A sum of £5 a month, which at present is all the town can afford, is allotted for the purposes of keeping down jungle, preserving cleanliness, and for conservancy generally. The dry-earth system is followed in the jail, in strict accordance with the rules of the Bengal Jail Code. Elsewhere there is no system at all with regard to this point. For the purposes of nature, the poorer classes go to the nearest fields, where the excreta are left to rot, or to be washed away by the rain, as the case may be. In the houses of the few well-to-do natives, some sort of a privy is generally constructed, often merely a hole in the earth, two or three feet deep, with a mat for a screen. The ordure is never deodorised or removed. No military cantonments are situated in the District.

SANITARY CONDITION OF THE DISTRICT.—The following brief account is extracted from page 205 of the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division" (Faridpur Section):—"The only place in which sanitary matters have hitherto received any attention is the Station of Faridpur; and, on the whole, the sanitation here is fair and satisfactory. It is situated on the banks of the Marà Padmà, and bounded on the south by a fresh-water lake called the Dhol Samudra, the water of which affords ample drainage, except in the height of the rains. The drainage is ample, and duly looked after. The houses are clean and not overcrowded; the water supply is good and tolerably wholesome. In the interior the houses are not well raised; at least many are not sufficiently elevated to withstand the heavy floods. There are no roads in the villages, unless the numerous cattle-tracks may be so called; but during the dry season of the year, the dried-up watercourses are an easy means of thoroughfare. The drains of the villages are anything but good; they are simply numerous ditches, trenches, and small watercourses (*málás*), overgrown with weeds, and choked with dead and decaying matter of every sort. The water supply is chiefly confined to tanks; any pit or hole is so named; they are scarcely less noisome than the drains, and are generally filled with filth. The only means of communication in the height of the rains is by boat or by floating rafts made of bamboos or plantain stems. Defective drainage is not the only evil to be complained of. The malaria arising from the ditches and pools alluded to cannot readily escape, for the houses are embedded in rank, close jungle,

consisting of trees and bamboos, and the interstices filled with brushwood and creepers, altogether forming a barrier impervious to air and sunshine. The wonder is that people can exist in such an atmosphere. Subsist, however, they do, though the progeny they rear is weak and sickly."

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX TO BÁKARGANJ DISTRICT.

LAND TENURES.—The following description of the different varieties of Land Tenures met with in Bákarganj District is slightly condensed from a Report drawn up by Deputy Collector Bábu Hari Mohan Sen, and forwarded to me by the Bengal Government. The subject properly belongs to the main body of the Statistical Account, but the information was not received till too late for insertion in its proper place.

INDEPENDENT ESTATES.—The total number of estates on the revenue roll of Bákarganj District paying revenue direct to Government is returned at 5418 on the 31st August 1873. Of these, 5278 were on the fixed department of the rent-roll, and 140 on the fluctuating department. The number of estates on the fixed department which have been permanently settled is returned at 4992. Of these, 4707 were permanently settled at the time of the Decennial Settlement, viz., 162 *zamíndárís* and 4545 independent *táluks*. Of the remaining 285 estates, 15 are resumed *lákhiráj*, 68 *chars* resumed under Regulation II. of 1819, 189 estates sold by Government, and 13 permanently settled Sundarban grants. The number of estates settled temporarily is 286. The above gives the latest report of the rent-roll, but when the Mádárípur Subdivision is transferred to Faridpur, certain changes will take place. The distinction between a *zamíndárí* and an independent *táluk* is now merely nominal; it consisted in the *zamíndárí* having been originally a *parganá*, or a share of one, while an independent *táluk* was a holding which was separated from the *zamíndárí* at the time of the Decennial Settlement, and the rent of which became thenceforth directly payable to Government.

Zamíndárís.—The largest *zamíndárí* in the District is that of Idalpur, belonging to the Tagore family, in whose possession it has been since 1812. The *zamíndárí* is one of old standing, and is mentioned in a table given at page 367 of the Fifth Report of the House of Commons (original edition), as having belonged to one Rámballabh

in 1165 (1758–59 A.D.), and as having borne a revenue of £4701, 10s. in 1135 (1728–29 A.D.), and of £10,627 in 1170 (1763–64 A.D.) It is also alluded to at some length on a previous page of this Statistical Account.

The oldest *zamíndárí* in the District appears to be that of Chandradwíp, which is said to have belonged to the Rájás of Chandradwíp for several centuries before the Permanent Settlement; a brief description of it is given at a previous page of this Statistical Account, quoted from the Special Report on the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division" (1867). The Salímábád *zamíndárí* is also a very old one, and the *parganá* is situated partly in Jessor and partly in Bákarganj. For long the lands comprised in it remained uncultivated, as the manufacture of salt was conducted to a large extent in it. It is now one of the most profitable estates in the District. Bozargomedpur originally belonged to Agá Bákar, who is said to have given his name to Bákarganj District. It then passed into the hands of Rájá Rájballabh Sen, and on his death, and after his heirs had, by quarrelling among themselves, failed to pay up the Government revenue, it was put up to sale and bought in by Government in 1801. The *parganá* as a *zamíndárí* at one time contained several dependent *táluks*. Of these, many have been gradually sold by Government. There are still 228 dependent *táluks* in the *zamíndárí*, and the revenues of all of them are paid directly and separately into the Treasury, although they are included in one number in the rent-roll. These two large *zamíndárís* are also alluded to at greater length on a previous page, the description being slightly condensed from the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division" (1867).

Independent Táluks.—As stated above, the number of *táluks* separated from the parent *zamíndárís* at the time of the Decennial Settlement, and the revenues of which were thenceforth made payable direct to Government, numbered 4545. The annual Government revenues paid on account of them varies from £1948, 15s. to as low as three farthings. The largest of these *táluks* are situated in *parganá* Bozargomedpur, while the smallest and the most numerous are in *parganá* Bángrorá. The Mission *táluk* at Sibpur is one of old standing. It is composed of four *hawálás*, made over in 1764 by Rájá Rájballabh of Rájnagar for the maintenance of a Christian priest at Sibpur. The revenue of the *táluk* is £176, 3s. The most profitable of the estates permanently settled after the Permanent Settlement is Ailá Phuljhurí; it yields an income of about £10,000,

while its assessment is only £34, 18s. It is an *ábádkárí táluk*, granted by Government in 1805 to one Rám Dhan Cháttarji rent free for seven years, and thereafter subject to the payment of a fixed rent of £34, 18s. In 1809, the estate passed into the hands of one Krishna Gobind Rái, and subsequently into the hands of Khwájá Wáfezullá, by whose descendant, Khwájá Asánullá of Dacca, it is at present held.

Táluk Muhammad Haiát is also deserving of note. It was composed of several properties, which belonged to one Muhammad Haiát, and which were forfeited to Government on account of his having been convicted of gang-robbery. The right of Government in the *mahals*, except in one, has been sold.

Permanently Settled Estates.—The following table shows the classification of the permanently settled estates, according to the amount of revenue paid by them :—

Description of Estates.	No. paying £1000 and upwards.	No. paying £100 and upwards, but less than £1000.	No. paying £10 and upwards, but less than £100.	No. paying £5 and upwards, but less than £10.	No. paying £1 and upwards, but less than £5.	No. paying less than £1.	Total.
Settled at the time of Decennial Settlement.							
Zamindári, . . .	14	58	50	11	28	1	162
Khárijá Táluk, . .	3	84	404	239	1041	2774	4545
Since settled.							
Resumed *Lákhiráj*, .	...	1	3	2	4	5	15
Resumed under Regulation II., 1819, .	...	7	37	10	10	4	68
Estates in which *zamindári* right of Government has been sold	...	12	61	20	57	39	189
Permanently settled estates in the Sundarbans,	1	5	7	...	...	...	13
Total, .	18	167	562	282	1140	2823	4992

Temporarily Settled Estates.—Besides the estates settled in perpetuity there are 72 temporarily settled estates, which are the property of individuals. These are *chars*, or newly-formed alluvial lands, resumed under the provisions of Regulation II. of 1819. The settlement of such estates is made with the proprietors of the parent estates to which they are attached, unless they refuse to accept the

terms offered them by Government. These estates are classified as under, according to the amount of revenue paid by them :—Number of estates paying £1000 a year and upwards, *nil;* number paying between £100 and £1000, 13; number paying between £10 and £100, 23; number between £5 and £10, 11; number paying between £1 and £5, 13; number paying less than £1, 12. Total of temporarily settled estates, 72.

The Lákhiráj Estates are of two kinds: (1) estates held rent-free under valid grants; and (2) estates of which the Government revenue has been redeemed. Of the first description there are nine estates, seven of which are situated in *parganá* Chandradwíp, and two in *parganá* Salímábád. Two of these estates are held under *bádsháhí* grants, or estates granted rent-free by the Mughul governors; the others are held under *sanads*, or deeds of gift, from the *zamíndárs*. Of the *zamíndárí* grants two are *debottar*, or lands assigned for the worship of the gods; one is *brahmottar*, or land assigned for the support of Bráhmans; the other four are *khánábárí*, or unassessed homestead land. The two *bádsháhí* grants are situated in *parganá* Chandradwíp. The first is held by the descendants of one Lakshman Sinh, to whom a grant of 77 acres of land was made by Sháh Shujá in consideration of the services of his family in a fight with the Maghs. The other, consisting of 368 acres, is held by the descendants of one Kutab-ud-dín, who received the grant from Sayyid Kulí Khán. The *lákhiráj* estates, of which the Government revenue has been redeemed, are eighteen in number, of which thirteen are situated within *parganá* Srírámpur.

The Government Estates held in Farm are either island *chars* or estates purchased at auction sale on account of arrears of revenue. They number 214 in all, and are classified as under, according to the amount of revenue paid by them :—Number of estates paying an annual revenue of £1000 and upwards, 6; estates paying between £100 and £1000, 35; estates paying between £10 and £100, 52; estates paying between £5 and £10, 18; estates paying between £1 and £5, 25; estates paying less than £1, 78. Total number of estates, 214.

Estates under Government Management.—Previous to April 1873, there was only one estate in Bákarganj under direct Government management (*khás*), and that was Jainagar, in the Subdivision of Dakshín Sháhbázpur. Since that period, however, many estates, of which the settlement expired with the end of March last, have been brought

under *khás* management, and there are now in the District as many as 140 estates under the direct management of Government. These estates are of two kinds: *first*, estates the property of Government; and *second*, estates the property of individuals. In the case of the latter class of estates, Government has to pay to the proprietors *málikáná*, or allowance in consideration of their proprietary rights, at rates varying from 5 to 10 per cent. on the net collections of the estates. The number and nature of these estates are as follows:—

Description of Estates.	Paying £1000 and upwards.	Paying £100 and upwards, but less than £1000.	Paying £10 and upwards, but less than £100.	Paying £5 and upwards, but less than £10.	Paying £1 and upwards, but less than £5.	Less than £1.	Total.
Estates property of Government,	...	9	18	6	22	26	81
Ditto ditto of individuals,	1	12	31	9	5	1	59
Total,	1	21	49	15	27	27	140

TENURES HELD BY MIDDLEMEN.—These are distinguished from cultivating tenures by the fact that they convey a right to collect the rents of the land, while the cultivating or *rayatí* tenures convey the right to the actual possession of the soil. The names of the nineteen tenures held by middlemen met with in Bákarganj District are as follow:—(1) *táluk*, (2) *ausat táluk*, (3) *nim ausat táluk*, (4) *nim táluk*, (5) *hawálá*, (6) *ausat hawálá*, (7) *nim ausat hawálá*, (8) *nim ausat nim hawálá*, (9) *tim hawálá*, (10) *patní*, (11) *dar patní*, (12) *taksimí*, (13) *taskhisí*, (14) *khand kharíd*, (15) *zimmá*, (16) *mushkhasí*, (17) *ábádkárí*, (18) *mirásh*, and (19) *dar mirásh*. There are numerous links in the chain of tenures between the proprietor who holds direct from the State and the actual tiller of the soil. First comes the *zamíndárí* or parent estate; next the *táluk*, the *ausat táluk*, and the *nim ausat táluk*; then the *hawálá*, the *ausat hawálá*, and the *nim ausat hawálá*; and, last of all, the *karshá* or *rayatí* tenancy of the actual cultivator. The Deputy Collector in his Report states that he was first told that in practice the tenures do not stand in the order mentioned above, and that more than 3 or 4 such tenures do not occur on the same estate. But he has since been assured by experienced persons that in many cases, and especially in *parganá* Salímábád, all these

tenures are met with in the same piece of land, and all in their regular order.

The following is a brief account of each of the intermediate tenures named above:—

(1.) *Táluk.*—The name is derived from an Arabic word, which means dependence. The system of *tálukdárí* tenures had its origin with the Muhammadan Government. The Mughul Emperors introduced the practice of granting *táluks* at a favourable assessment as a mark of favour or on condition of clearing and cultivating waste lands. In imitation of this principle, *táluks* were afterwards created by the *zamíndár* also, who, on receiving a bonus or *salámí*, made over to the *tálukdár* almost his entire rights in portions of his estate, subject to the payment to him of an annual rent.

At the time of the Permanent Settlement, these *táluks* were divided into two classes, independent and dependent. The independent *táluks*, called *khárijá* or *huzúrí*, were separated from the *zamíndárís*. The dependent *táluks* remained included in the *zamíndárís*. They are called *mazkurí* or *shámilí táluks*, and in Bákarganj District consist of the four following classes,—*shikmí táluk*, *jangalburí táluk*, *zar kharíd táluk*, and *pattái táluk*. A *shikmí táluk* is a tenure held immediately from the proprietor, who holds his estate direct from Government. Its conditions are not defined by law. The tenure, however, is, by the established custom of the District, held to be hereditary and transferable. Its rent is liable to variation or not, according to the terms of the original deed. The holder has the right of creating similar tenures as his own, but they are not good against the auction-purchaser of his tenure at a sale for arrears of rent, unless the right of making encumbrances shall have been expressly vested in him. The arrears of rent on account of a *táluk* can be realised by the sale of the tenure under the provisions of Act VIII. of 1869; and if the sale proceeds be not sufficient to cover the arrears due, the person and the other properties of the defaulter become liable for the same. A *táluk* of this kind can be secured against the auction-purchaser of the parent estate by registry under Act XI. of 1859. *Jangalburí táluks* are reclamation tenures for jungle clearing, and are described in Section 8 of Regulation VIII. of 1793, as follows:—"*Tálukdárs* whose tenure is denominated *jangalburí*, are not considered entitled to separation from the proprietors of whom they hold. The *pattás* (leases) granted to these *tálukdárs* in consideration of the grantee clearing away the jungle,

and bringing the land into a productive state, give it to him and his heirs in perpetuity, with the right of disposing of it either by sale or gift, exempting him from the payment of revenue for a certain time, and at the expiration of it subjecting him to a specific *jamá* (assessment), with all increases, *abwábs*, and *mathaut* imposed on the *parganá* generally; but this only for such parts of the land as the grantee brings into a state of cultivation. The grantee is further subject to the payment of a certain specified portion of all complimentary presents and fees which he may receive from his under-tenants, exclusive of the fixed rent. The lease specifies the boundary of the land granted, but not the quantity of it, until it is brought under cultivation." There are very few *jangalburí táluks* in Bákarganj, and they occur chiefly in the Sundarbans portion of the District. *Zar kharíd táluks* are hereditary and transferable tenures. On failure of heirs, the *zamíndár* takes possession, and sells the lands, or keeps them, as he may be inclined. These *táluks* are also few in number, and are only met with in *parganá* Kálikápur. *Pattái táluks* seem only to differ from other *táluks*, because the *zamíndárs* give leases for them. These tenures are found in all parts of the District, but are most prevalent in *parganá* Aurangpur, in which there are said to be no less than 379 *táluks* of this kind.

(2 and 3.) *Ausat táluk* and *nim táluk*.—Subordinate to a *táluk* is an *ausat táluk*. It is hereditary and transferable, and its rent is liable to variation or not, according to the terms of the deed creating it. On the sale of the superior tenure for arrears of rent, it becomes void, unless its grantor shall have been expressly vested with the right of making such encumbrances. An *ausat tálukdár* has the right of under-letting his lands in whatever manner he may deem conducive to his interest. All transfers of such *táluks*, or portions of them, by sale, gift, or otherwise, as well as all succession thereto, and divisions among heirs in cases of inheritance, are required to be registered in the *sarishtá* of the superior tenant, and if this is not done, the superior tenant is not bound to recognise these transfers. There is a very large number of these *táluks* in the District, and in almost all parts of it. They are usually granted by the *tálukdárs* on receiving *salámís* equal to about ten or twelve times their annual rents. Sometimes it also happens that when a *tálukdár* finds that he cannot cope with the *zamíndár* or his superior tenant, he sells his *tálukdárí* right to a neighbouring *zamíndár*, and the latter grants an *ausat táluk* to him, reserving for himself only a nominal profit as the

price of the protection he offers. A *táluk* of this kind is in some parts of the Sundarbans, as also in the Angariá division, called *nim táluk*.

(4.) A *nim ausat táluk* is a subdivision of the preceding tenure.

(5.) *Hawálá*, signifies literally a charge, and hence anything placed in charge of a person. It is said that the tenure *hawálá* had its origin at the time of the original reclamation of the District. The *zamíndárs* and *tálukdárs*, unable to clear out the large tracts of jungly lands comprised in their estates, divided them into lots, and placed each lot in the *hawálá* or charge of an individual, giving him some proprietary right therein. Thus the tenure *hawálá* originated, and afterwards subordinate tenures created by a *hawáládár* were named *ausat hawálá*, *nim hawálá*, &c. Unlike a *táluk*, *ausat táluk*, or *nim ausat táluk*, which always appear in successive gradation under a *zamíndárí*, a *hawálá* sometimes appears immediately under a *zamíndárí*, sometimes under a *táluk*, and sometimes under an *ausat* or *nim ausat táluk*. The most striking fact, however, is, that when a *zamíndár* creates a *hawálá*, his right of creating a *táluk* and the *tálukdár's* right of creating an *ausat táluk*, and then again the right of creating a *nim ausat táluk*, and all above the *hawálá*, are still retained, so that even when a *hawáládár* is immediately under a *zamíndár* he is at all times liable to be made a *tálukdár* of the second, third, or even fourth degree. A *hawálá* in this District is, by the established custom, a heritable and transferable property, but is liable to variation of rent in the absence from the agreement of any provision to the contrary.

(6, 7, 8, and 9.) *Ausat hawálá*, *nim ausat hawálá*, *nim ausat nim awálá*, and *tim hawálá*.—An under-tenure created by a *hawáládár* is called an *ausat hawálá*, or *nim hawálá*, and a lease granted on similar terms by an *ausat* or *nim hawáládár* is called a *nim ausat hawálá*. The tenure subordinate to a *nim ausat hawáládár* is called a *nim ausat nim hawálá*, or *tim hawálá*. All these tenures, like *hawálás*, are heritable and transferable. There is a very large number of *hawálás*, *ausat hawálás* and *nim ausat hawálás* in the District. They occur in almost all parts of it, and many of them have been in existence from before the time of the Permanent Settlement, and are held at fixed rentals. The number of *nim ausat nim hawálás* is also large, but *tim hawálás* are very rare, the *batwárá* papers showing the existence of only two *tim hawálás* in *parganá* Aurangpur. It seems that this tenure is not generally recognised. In the District Report on Bákarganj, in the "History and

Statistics of the Dacca Division," it is stated that an attempt was once made to create a *tím hawálá*, but that it proved a failure. This story was repeated to the Deputy Collector in 1873 by every one whom he asked about the tenure, and it seems to be a general belief that *tím hawálá* is a tenure existing only in name. The Deputy Collector states that it is very probable that the two tenures at Aurangpur are of recent origin, and it is yet a matter of doubt whether they will be eventually recognised.

(10 and 11.) *Patní táluks* are created under Regulation VIII. of 1819, and need no description. An under-tenure created by a *patnídar* is called *dar patní*. There are few *patnís* and *dar patnís* in this District, and they occur chiefly in *parganá* Idalpur.

(12.) *Taksímí*.—According to Wilson this is a *táluk* which was separately registered in the original rent-roll or *tumar jamá* of the land revenue of Hindustán, and of which, under the British administration of Bengal, the lands and assessments are unalterable. The Collector of this District, in his letter to the Board dated 9th July 1812, says that *taksímí* grants are invariably made by a deed, and are liable to separation from the *zamíndárí* on fixed *jamá*. A *taksímí táluk* is not liable to measurement or enhancement of revenue, unless an increase is made upon the whole *parganá*. *Taksímí*, as also *tashkhisí*, *táluks*, are only found in *parganá* Idalpur.

(13.) *Tashkhisí* is an hereditary tenure, but not otherwise transferable, and its rent is liable to variation.

(14.) *Khand Kharíd*.—In *parganá* Kotwálípará, when a *tálukdár* sells any part of his *táluk* to another, the latter calls himself a *khand kharíddár* of so much land, and pays his rent to the *tálukdár*. The land purchased is called *khand kharíd*, and is heritable, transferable, and not liable to variation of rent.

(15.) *Zimmá*.—The following description of the *zimmá* system occurs in the Magistrate's letter to the Commissioner dated the 22d July 1872:—"The nature of the *zimmá* system is, that it is a transaction whereby a *rayat* puts himself under the protection of a foreign *zamíndár*. Sometimes the initiation is taken by the *zamíndár*, and sometimes by the *rayat*. Thus if a *rayat* finds that he cannot cope with his landlord, or that the latter will not give him the protection to which he considers himself entitled, he goes to a neighbouring *zamíndár* and offers to come under his *zimmá*, that is, he offers to do him homage, and to sell or lease his tenure to him, provided that he in turn protects him against his proper landlord, or helps him in

gaining some object which he has in view. Should the *zamíndár* accept this offer, an ordinary deed of sale or lease is drawn out, and he becomes the *zimmádár* of the *rayat*. The word *zimmá*, however, never appears in the deed, and it is chiefly by the circumstances of the case that a *zimmá* is distinguished from a regular mercantile transaction. These circumstances are generally that the right transferred is not one which is legally transferable, that the motive stated in the deed is not the true one, and that in reality the land does not change hands." When thus a *zimmá* is created, the *zamíndár's* connection with the *rayat* ceases. He gets his rent from the *zimmádárí* who in his turn becomes the genuine landlord of the *rayat*, and receives the *abwábs* or cesses, such as fees on marriage, &c. The *zimmá* system prevails in a more or less degree in all parts of the District, but it is most common in the southern quarters. Besides the class of *zimmá* tenures described above, there is another sort of tenure in the District called *zimmá*. A tenure of this kind resembles in every way a *shikmí táluk*, and is invariably held of the proprietor of an estate under direct engagement with Government. The peculiarity of this tenure is, that in no case has the *zimmádár* any direct concern with the *rayats*, his lands being all let out in under-tenures. The *zimmá* tenures of this kind are numerous in the District. They principally occur in *parganás* Salímábád and Chandradwíp.

(16.) *Mushkhasí*.—This is a *táluk* held at a fixed rental of the proprietors of estates under direct engagement with Government. It is hereditary, but not otherwise transferable. There are few *mushkhas* tenures in the District, and they occur chiefly in the north-eastern part of Mádárípur Subdivision.

(17.) *Abádkárí táluk* is much like a *jangalburí táluk;* the nature of it is, that it is a *táluk* granted to a person in consideration of his clearing the jungle, and bringing the land into cultivation. The *táluk* is at first held rent-free; it is then subject to a variable rent. The tenure may be cancelled in the event of the grantees failing to clear the jungles. *Táluks* of this kind are prevalent in all parts of the District, especially in alluvial lands. One instance is Char Bhitá in Dakshín Sháhbázpur, held immediately of Government at a rent of £29, 10s. It is hereditary and transferable, but liable to variation of rent.

(18 and 19.) *Mirásh* and *dár mirásh* are the same as *táluk* and *ausat táluk*. They occur chiefly in *parganá* Bangrorá in the Mádárípur Subdivision. In other parts of the District, the word *mirásh* is used in

another sense, and every tenant is supposed competent to create subordinate to him a *mirásh* of his own tenure, as *mirásh táluk*, *mirásh hawálá*, &c., which means a perpetual farm, conveying a right of occupancy at the stipulated rates of rents.

TENANCIES OF CULTIVATORS, OR RAYATI TENURES.—By Act VIII. of 1869, cultivating husbandmen are divided into three classes :—(1) *rayats* entitled to hold their lands in perpetuity at fixed rates of rent; (2) *rayats* with rights of occupany, but liable to periodical enhancements of rent; and (3) tenants at will.

(1.) *Rayats entitled to hold at fixed rates.*—By Section 3, Act VIII. of 1869, it is provided that *rayats* who hold lands at fixed rates of rents, which shall not have been changed from the time of the Permanent Settlement, are entitled to receive *pattás* at those rates. Such *rayats* are also protected against auction-purchasers by Section 37, Act XI. of 1859. There are only few *rayats* of this class, and they are chiefly on the Mulfatganj side of the District.

(2.) *Rayats having Rights of Occupancy.*—These *rayats* are entitled to receive *pattás* at "fair and equitable rates," and are protected against auction-purchasers, except in Dakshín Sháhbázpur Subdivision. The Right of Occupancy is not in this District held to be transferable. *Rayats* having Rights of Occupancy are found in all parts of the District.

(3.) *Tenants at will.*—All other *rayats*, besides those described above, have no rights whatever, independently of those which they derive from the act of the landlord under lease. By Section 8 of Act VIII. of 1869, they are entitled to *pattás* only at such rates as may be agreed on between them and the persons to whom the rent is payable. In the absence of any provision to the contrary, these *rayats* are liable to be ejected from their holdings, if at the end of the Bengali year, any arrears of rent remain due in respect of the same.

The commonest name of a *rayatí* tenancy in the District is *karshá*. It is derived from *krisha*, to till. The tenure is usually held under a *páttá*, specifying the amount of rent annually payable for the same. Except in Dakshín Sháhbázpur, a *karshá* is not in this District held to be transferable.

When a *karshádár* lets out his land, the person holding of him is called *korfá* or *koljamá*. In some parts of the District *karshádárs* are called *jotdárs*, and *korfás* are called *koljotdárs*; the right of a *jotdár* is held to be transferable at Tushkhálí and in Dakshín Sháhbázpur. Land is also let out on *bargá*. The nature of this tenure

is, that the occupant of the soil, generally a *karshádár*, makes over the land to another person on condition of receiving half the crop. This tenure is generally held without any written engagement.

Similar to the *bargá* is another tenure called *khámár*. The word means properly lands originally waste but brought into cultivation by the *zamíndár*. It is applied to lands which the *zamíndár* retains in his own hands, and cultivates by hired labour, or by tenants at will, paying half the produce of the land for labour, and retaining the other half for rent.

Besides these, there are also three other *rayatí* tenures, viz., *káimí karshá*, *mirásh karshá*, and *rayatí hawálá*. The first two of these tenures are the same except in name, and by the established custom of the country held to be hereditary and transferable. The rent is generally liable to variation. *Rayatí hawálás* are also of the same nature, but with the difference that the grantor has the right of pre-emption.

FARMS AND MORTGAGE TENURES.—*Ijárá*.—The common term for a farming lease is *ijárá*, derived from an Arabic word meaning price or hire, and signifies a contract for, or farm of, the rent of lands at a specific amount. Leases of this kind are generally short, seldom exceeding ten years, and they convey only a limited interest. The *ijáráddár* is not competent, without permission of his landlord, to grant a lease extending beyond the term of his own lease, or to transfer his right without the *zamíndár's* consent. In the case of an ordinary farm, no length of occupancy gives the tenant a right to hold in perpetuity. These rules, however, are not applicable to a *maurúsí ijárá* or *mirásh ijárá*, which is a perpetual farm conveying a right of occupancy for ever at the rates contracted for. A *katkiná* is a lease by which lands are let out for terms of years at a rack-rent. The system of *ijárá* is prejudicial to the interests of the *rayats*. Generally an *ijáráddár* takes a lease of an estate at a rent equal to the entire rental paid by the *rayats*, and as a consequence has to depend solely on his power of exaction for a profit. Thus the *ijáráddár* makes the most he can out of the estate during his short tenure of it, and the unfortunate *rayats* are squeezed in every way.

The mortgage leases are of the following kinds:—(1) *poshaní*, (2) *sudbarát*, (3) *bandak*, (4) *rahán*, (5) *baybalwáfá*.

The condition of *poshaní* is, that the property passes into the hands of the lessee, mortgagee, and he retains the whole rent until the entire debt is liquidated; under the *sudbarát* system, in like manner, the rent of the farm is retained by the lessee, mortgagee, in lieu

of interest on loan. In this and in the case of *bandak* and *rahán*, under which money is advanced on the security of the farm, the lessee, or mortgagee, has the right of bringing the farm to sale, and realising his money out of the proceeds thereof, if it is not paid at the time when, according to the conditions of the lease, it is payable. The distinction between a *sudbarát* and a *bandak* and *rahán* is, that under the first the property pledged as security passes into the hands of the lessee or mortgagee, while under the second and third the property remains with the lessor or mortgagor. Under *baybalwáfá*, money is advanced on the condition that if it is not paid at the time when it is made payable, the property shall immediately be reckoned as sold, and the lessor or mortgagor shall have no title to it. The *baybalwáfá* is of two kinds—*dakhalikát* and *bedakhalikát*. Under the first, the property is placed in the hands of the mortgagee from the beginning of the transaction, and he retains the rent for the interest; and under the second, the property remains in the hands of the mortgagor.

SERVICE TENANCIES.—The service tenures in Bákarganj, granted rent-free by the *zamíndárs* in exchange for services rendered by the grantee, are of the four following descriptions:—(1) *nánkár*, (2) *chákrán*, (3) *inámat*, and (4) *páikán*.

(1.) *Nánkár*, derived from two Persian words meaning business and bread, is applied to a tract of land set apart for the maintenance of a certain person in consideration of his doing some personal service. It is a rent-free tenure, hereditary, but not otherwise transferable. The grantor has the right of resuming it on the tenant ceasing to perform the duties intrusted to him. Tenures of this kind are not liable to attachment for the debts of the tenant. The *nánkár* tenures are scattered all over the different parts of the District, and are held by barbers, washermen, sweepers, village heads, &c.

(2.) *Chákrán* is the same as the preceding.

(3.) *Inámat*, from *inám*, literally a gift by a superior to an inferior. The nature of it is, that it is a grant of rent-free lands, made either as a mark of favour or as a reward to the grantee for his distinction in any particular branch of service. The *batwárá* papers show that there are six *inámat* tenures in *parganá* Aurangpur.

(4.) *Páikán*.—A grant resumable at any time at the option of the *zamíndár*, and not transferable or liable to attachment for the personal debts of the holder. The *zamíndár* bestows it in consideration of the holder's personal services as a *páik* (messenger) or *láthiál* (clubman).

These tenures exist in all parts of the District, but their number is greatest in Binodpur and Baikunthpur, places which have an evil notoriety for their *láthiáls* (clubmen).

Under the ancient system, such lands were exempted from the Government assessment of the estates in which they were included, the area of these rent-free lands being deducted from that of the whole estate before the assessment was made. At the time of the formation of the Decennial Settlement this was disallowed, and now, although these tenures are held rent-free by the grantee, the area of such lands is included in the *zamíndár's* Government assessment in the same way as the rest of the estate.

RELIGIOUS AND CHARITABLE RENT-FREE TENURES. — These tenures are nine in number, as follows:—(1) *debottar*, (2) *bráhmottar*, (3) *britti*, (4) *britta bhikshá*, (5) *mahattrán*, (6) *chirághí*, (7) *khánábárí*, (8) *jautuk*, and (9) *áimá*.

(1.) *Debottar*.—Tenures granted rent-free for the support of temples and idols. They are hereditary, but not otherwise transferable.

(2.) *Brahmottar*.—Aurangpur seems to be specially rich in its *brahmottars*, the *batwárá* papers showing as many as 608 *brahmottars* in the *parganá*. In other parts of the District also these tenures exist, but their number, it is believed, is nowhere so great. The nature of this tenure is, that it is granted rent-free to Bráhmans for their maintenance and that of their descendants, as a reward for their sanctity or learning, or to enable them to devote themselves to religious duties and education. Such tenures cannot be resumed by the *zamíndár* or his descendants, and are hereditary and transferable.

(3.) *Britti*.—This also is a grant of rent-free lands for the maintenance of Bráhmans, and is in every way the same as a *brahmottar*. Tenures of this kind are chiefly found in *parganás* Krishnadebpur, Chandradwíp, and Rájnagar.

(4.) *Britta bhikshá* is held on the same condition as a *brahmottar*, and is a tenure granted to a Bráhman at the time of his being invested with the sacred thread.

(5.) *Mahattrán*.—This is a grant of rent-free lands to a Hindu other than a Bráhman. Originally these grants were made out of respect to the sanctity of their holders. They are hereditary, transferable, and liable for the personal debt of the holders. Tenures of this kind are chiefly found in *parganás* Chandradwíp and Salimábád.

(6.) *Chirághí.*—A grant of rent-free lands to a Muhammadan, similar to the *debottar* and *brahmottar* of the Hindus, made in consideration of the grantee's sanctity, and of his illuminating a mosque or tomb. It is hereditary, but not in all cases, capable of being alienated, sold, or transferred to another. *Chirághí* tenures exist in all parts of the District, and are numerous.

(7.) *Khánábárí.*—A house with the grounds and outhouses attached to it. A small patch of garden ground attached to a *rayat's* hut, in which he grows vegetables for his own use, and for which he is exempt from rent by the *zamíndár*. This is the same in its nature as *chákrán*, *páikán*, and *mahattrán* tenures, and it occurs chiefly in *parganá* Chandradwíp. Perhaps the largest *khánábárí* in the District is that in Mádhabpáshá, and which belongs to the old *zamíndárs*, or rájás, as they are termed, of Chandradwíp.

(8.) *Jautuk* is the property with which a woman is endowed, and which she brings to her husband in marriage. It is the same as English dower.

(9.) *Áimá.*—A grant of rent-free lands to learned and religious persons, or for a religious and charitable purpose.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF MAIMANSINH.

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MAIMANSINH (Mymensing) District lies between 23° 58′ and 25° 25′ north latitude; and 89° 40′ and 91° 19′ east longitude. It contains an area, according to a return by the Boundary Commissioner in July 1874, of 6,318·02 square miles. The Census Report of 1872 took the area of the District at 6293 square miles, and returned the population at 2,349,917 souls. The civil station and administrative seat of the District is Maimansinh, otherwise called Nasírábád, situated on the west bank of the Brahmaputra river, in 24° 45′ 15″ north latitude, and 90° 27′ 21″ east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.—The District is bounded on the north by the Gáro Hills; on the east by the District of Silhet; on the south east by the District of Tipperah; on the south by the District of Dacca; and on the west by the river Jamuná, which separates it from the Districts of Pabná, Bográ, and Rangpur. The boundaries, as at present existing, were only settled a few years ago. The *Calcutta Gazette* of the 15th February 1866, notified the following transfers:—The transfer of the Police Circle of Sirájganj from the District of Mai-

* My account of Maimansinh District is chiefly derived from the following sources:—(1.) Five series of returns forwarded by the Collector, in answer to five sets of questions issued by me in 1869-70; (2.) Mr Reynold's Report in the History and Statistics of the Dacca Division (Calcutta, 1868); (3.) Report on Bengal Census, 1872, by Mr H. Beverley, C.S., with subsequent District compilation by Mr C. F. Magrath; (4.) Babu Hem Chandra Kar's Report on Jute Cultivation in Bengal; (5.) Rent Statement; (6.) Collector's Land Tenure Report; (7.) Annual Reports on the Police of the Lower Provinces for 1870, 1871; (8.) Annual Report on the Jails of the Lower Provinces for 1870, and Statistics specially drawn up for me by the Inspector General of Jails; (9.) Annual Reports of the Educational Department for 1856-57, 1860-61, 1870-71, 1872-73; (10.) Postal Statistics furnished by the Director-General of Post Offices; (11.) Area and latitudes and longitudes by the Surveyor General; (12.) Income Tax Report; (13.) Board of Revenue's Parganá Statistics; (14.) Medical Return prepared for me by the Civil Surgeon; (15) Report on Charitable Dispensaries, 1871; and (16.) My forthcoming 4 vols. of Bengal MS. Records.

mansinh, to that of Pabná; the Police Circle of Díwánganj from Bográ to Maimansinh; and the Police Circle of Atiá from Dacca to Maimansinh. Considerable difficulty seems to have been experienced in determining the northern boundary, a question having arisen as to whether any part of the Gáro Hills was included in the Permanent Settlement of 1793 made with the Maimansinh landholders. In 1856, when the survey of the rest of the District had been completed, the Survey officers attempted to lay down a northern boundary, which included a portion of the hills; but the difficulties attending the task, and the opposition of the hill tribes, compelled them to abandon the attempt, and a provisional line was laid down at the foot of the hills, which it was proposed should be maintained as the District boundary. This was objected to by the Rájá of Susang, and by some other landholders, who claimed a large part of the Gáro hills as included in the lands held by them under the Permanent Settlement. The Board of Revenue recommended that the survey line at the foot of the hills should be maintained as the northern boundary of the District, leaving the landholders to prosecute any claims they might have to the land, in the Civil Courts. The Government of Bengal adopted this view in June 1861, but it was not until the 29th August 1866, that the final notification appeared in the *Calcutta Gazette*. In 1874, 28 villages along the southern boundary were transferred from Maimansinh to Dacca.

General aspect of the District.—Almost the whole of the District, with the exception of the Madhupur jungle, and a portion of Ran Bháwál, is level and open, covered with well-cultivated fields, and intersected by numerous small rivers and channels. A large portion of the western and south eastern part of the District, comprising the Fiscal Divisions of Juánsháhí and Ran Bháwál, lies under water during the rainy season. The Madhupur jungle, known also by the name of Gar Guzálí, extends from the northern part of Dacca into the very heart of the District, almost as far as the Brahmaputra. This part forms a slightly elevated tract, averaging in height some sixty feet above the level of the plains, but nowhere rising above a hundred feet. It is about forty-five miles in length, by from six to sixteen miles in breadth, covered with dense jungle; abounding in wild beasts, and the most unhealthy portion of the District, especially during the hot weather and rains. The *sál* (Shorea Robusta) grows throughout it, and is valuable both for timber and as charcoal. The open parts of the jungle afford grazing grounds during the cold

weather. The land of the District may be divided into three classes of soil, known as *báluá*, *doras*, and *mátiá*. The first of these is a light sandy loam, principally found in the neighbourhood of the large rivers, and well adapted for the growth of indigo and jute. The second description occurs in marshy lands, in which the *boro dhán* or spring rice crop is cultivated. The third class, which is the most valuable and fertile, consists of a rich mould, producing an abundant crop. These varieties of soil intermingle with each other, and are not confined to specific portions of the District. A different kind of soil is found in the neighbourhood of the Madhupur jungle, in the Fiscal Division of Pukhariá, and in the western part of Ran Bháwál. It consists of a red clay, strongly impregnated with iron, similar to that found in the jungly tract in the north-west of Dacca District.

MOUNTAINS.—There are no mountains in the interior of Maimánsinh, and the only elevated tract besides the Madhupur jungle, is the Susang hills on the north-west border. These hills have long even ridges, and are accessible to beasts of burden. If roads were made, they could also be rendered accessible to wheeled carriages. A small portion of them is barren and rocky, but the greater part is covered with thick, thorny jungle. Their height has not yet been ascertained.

RIVERS.—The Jamuná river, which forms the western boundary of the District, enters it near Dáokobá in Rangpur, and runs a course of ninety-four miles from north to south, till it finds its exit at Salímábád. It is navigable for large boats throughout the year. During the rainy season, it expands in many places to five or six miles in breadth, overflowing a considerable portion of the low-lying lands of the Fiscal Divisions of Pukhariá, Kágmárí, and Atiá. Some remarkable instances of alluvion and diluvion have taken place in consequence of the rapidity of the current, and the ravages which it commits on its banks. The Jamuná is a river of many changes. After the survey (1850-56), it swept to the eastward and washed away several villages on that bank of the river; but afterwards retired towards the west, forming a new channel, and leaving a number of sandbanks and alluvial accretions on the east of its bed. The banks are abrupt or sloping, according as the current sets from one side of the river or the other; but, in consequence of the numerous alterations in the current, they change their appearance almost yearly. Both banks of the river are cultivated. The Jamuná does not form important islands, but it throws up a good many alluvial deposits

(*chars*), some of considerable size, which are a fruitful source of litigation. The tide does not affect it, and it is not fordable at any season of the year. Its bed is sandy. (2) The Brahmaputra river enters Maimansinh at its north-west corner, close to Karaibárí on the borders of Goálpárá, from which point it flows in a south-easterly and southerly direction through the centre of the District as far as Tok, whence it forms the boundary between Maimansinh and Dacca, as far as Bhairab Bázár, a little below which it unites its waters with those of the Meghná. The following account of the river is extracted from the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," page 223 (Mr Reynolds' excellent District Report):—"The days are past in which the Brahmaputra was here entitled to rank as one of the great rivers of India. The gradual formation of *chars* and bars of sand in the upper part of its bed has diverted the great volume of water into the present channel of the Jamuná. The Brahmaputra is now a stream, which, in Maimansinh at least, probably averages less than a quarter of a mile in width in the dry season, and which is in most places easily fordable. Two places in the District may specially be noted in which the course of the river has considerably changed within a comparatively recent period. One of these is the tract between Jamálpur and Piárpur; the other lies between Kátiádí and Nápit *chár* in the south-eastern part of the District. From my recollections of Maimansinh, ten years ago, I can state with confidence, that in the interval the volume of water in the Brahmaputra has sensibly diminished; and it is not impossible, that in the lapse of another quarter of a century, this once great river may have dwindled away into an entirely insignificant stream. On the other hand, there is the chance that by the shifting of the sandbeds in the upper channel, the mass of water which now forms the Jamuná may be again diverted back to its old bed in the Brahmaputra. The diminution of water in the Brahmaputra, while it has exercised an unfavourable influence on the commercial prosperity of the District, has added greatly to its agricultural capabilities. The *chars* formed by the river are found to be extremely well adapted to the growth of indigo and jute; and in process of time they become suited to other crops also. In the rainy season, the Brahmaputra is navigable for boats of the largest burden, and the current flows with great rapidity." This was published only six years ago (1868). Since then, the process of silting up has gone on quickly, and the Jamuná is now not only the most important, but practically the only channel for the Brahmaputra waters to the south-

ward. The old eastward channel has dwindled into an insignificant stream. Its bed is sandy, and the banks are generally abrupt. (3.) The Meghná ranks third among the Maimansinh rivers, but as it only flows through a small portion of Juánsháhí Fiscal Division in the south-east, is hardly entitled to be considered as one of the rivers of this District. (4.) The Jhináí, a much less important stream not navigable in the dry season, leaves the Brahmaputra near the town of Jamálpur, flows through the Fiscal Division of Jafarsháhí, and falls into the Jamuná. (5.) The Kángsá river flows through the Fiscal Division of Maimansinh, and for a short distance forms the boundary between Maimansinh and Silhet. It is a stream of no great width, but of considerable depth, and is navigable throughout the year by boats of considerable burden. It is not fordable at any season of the year, but in other respects it partakes of the character of the Brahmaputra. Of minor streams, the Collector estimates that there are about a dozen which can be navigated by native boats of two tons burden throughout the rainy season. The Dhanu and Ghorá-utrá are two of these rivers, both being branches of the Meghná, the former flowing through the Fiscal Divisions of Nasírujiál and Kháliájurí; and the latter through the Fiscal Division of Juánsháhí. Another is the Surmá or Bherámoná river which separates the Fiscal Division of Kháliájurí from the District of Silhet. In Átiá and Pukhariá Fiscal Divisions there are a number of channels in connection with the Jamuná. They are fed entirely from that river, and if at any future day, its current were to change, they would at once disappear.

FERRIES, &c.—The following is a list of the seventeen principal ferries in the District, which are annually farmed out to the highest bidder: (1) Sambhuganj or *Sadr ghát* ferry, across the Brahmaputra river at Nasírábád, possessing three tolerably good boats. (2) Bhairá ferry, across the Brahmaputra, a few miles below the civil station of Nasírábád; in 1866 this, and the ferry above named were farmed out for £300. (3) Mantalá ferry, and (4) Aiman ferry; these two were rented for £10, 10s. in 1866. (5) Gábtalí ferry, across the river Banar, twenty-one miles west of the station on the main road to Subankhálí; only used in the rains; rental in 1866, £3, 2s. (6) Báigunbárí ferry, across a channel of the Brahmaputra; rental in 1866, £15. (7) Dulápur or Kakariá, over the river Meghná; only open from November to May, as the current is too rapid in the rains to allow the boats to cross; this, and the two following ferries were let in 1866 for £20, 12s. (8) Kaimarbálí, and (9) Ainargop ferries,

over the Ghorá-utrá river, a branch of the Meghná, and only maintained during the rainy months. (10) Jamálpur ferry, across the Brahmaputra, just above the sub-divisional station of Jamálpur; the ferry is used throughout the year, the river never being fordable at this place. (11) Piárpur ferry, over the Brahmaputrá river, about half-way between Nasírábád and Jamálpur. (12) Gopálpur ferry, over a small stream about ten miles east of Subankhálí; only maintained during the rains. (13) Nabagrám ferry, also only maintained during the rains, and thrown across a small stream on the Subankhálí road. (14) Kakráil ferry, similar to the one just named. (15) Salímábád ferry; (16) Alagdiá ferry; and (17) Dauhajání ferry, all across the Jamuná river, and used only in the rainy season; transferred some years ago from Dacca to Maimansinh. These were all the public ferries in 1867, but there were also private ones, of which probably the most important is the one on the Jamuná at Subankhálí. In the Annual Report for 1871-72, the Commissioner of the Division states that the revenue from most of these ferries is decreasing, owing to the dwindling of the rivers.

LAKES, MARSHES, &c.—The eastern and south-eastern parts of the District abound in marshes, which contain large quantities of fish, but the only sheet of water deserving the name of a lake is the Háodá *bil*, in the northern part of the Madhupur jungle. It is navigable throughout the year, but boats seldom ply upon it, and as its size varies according to the season, no accurate estimate of its area can be given. Marshes abound in Susang Fiscal Division; and to the west of the town of Nasírábád, there is a chain of swamps extending almost the whole distance from the Sotoá river to Gábtalí, twenty miles west of the town. Of artificial watercourses, the only one worthy of note is the Kátákhálí, within the sub-division of Kisoríganj. The loss of life in the District from drowning in the year 1869-70, as far as could be traced by the police reports, was 164 adults and 273 children—total, 437.

RIVER TRAFFIC.—There are no towns in the District situated on the banks of the rivers which contain a large community living entirely by river traffic. A great deal of trade on the rivers is nevertheless conducted by merchants who have their store-houses on the banks. The principal traffic down the rivers is the export of rice, jute, indigo, &c. With regard to the channels as a means of communication, I take the following extract from the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," page 224. "On the whole, the

rivers of the District cannot be said to afford any great facilities for internal communication. The Brahmaputra, which is the natural central highway, is not navigable in the dry season for large boats, and the Jamuná and Meghná only skirt the borders of the District. The Dhanu and Ghorá-utrá flow through a part of the District which is of no commercial importance. There is no regular water-carriage from the civil station to any large market; and it would be well if the inhabitants of the District would accept the truth on this point, and turn their attention to other means of communication."

UTILISATION OF THE WATER SUPPLY.—None of the non-navigable rivers or streams are utilised as a motive power for turning machinery, nor have they any descents or rapids sufficient to render it likely that they could be so applied by the formation of dams or weirs. In some parts of the Kisorganj Sub-division, in the south-east of the District, the small rivers and watercourses are used for purposes of irrigation. There are fisheries in all the rivers and marshes, and the supply of fish, though not exported, appears on the whole sufficient to meet the demands of the population. The principal fisheries existing in the District are Bághján *rakdaha*, Karátiá *rakdaha*, Phatikjání *rakdaha*, Nándáil, and Báigunbárí. None of these fisheries exceed half-a-mile in length, and they lie chiefly in the Kisorganj Sub-division. The marshes in this part of the District contain large quantities of fish. A considerable portion of the subdivision is under water during the rains. In the dry season the fishermen build temporary huts on the margin of a marsh, and live there till they have caught the greater part of the fish, when they remove to another place. There is also a chain of marshes in the west of the District which are well stocked with fish. The Collector estimates that about one-sixteenth of the entire population lives by navigation, fisheries, and river industries. Taking the population as returned by the census of 1872, this would give a total of 146,869 people living by boating or fishing. This, however, would appear to be too low an estimate, as the District Census Report returns the number of Hindu boating and fishing castes at 92,445, while the Hindus only form 34·8 per cent of the entire District population. The general value of the fisheries is returned at between £4000 and £5000 per annum, but no exact estimate exists.

MARSH CULTIVATION.—None of the rivers or marshes have been embanked with a view to cultivation, but many marshes are capable of being reclaimed. Most of the alluvial deposits in the beds of

the rivers are overgrown with coarse grass, which is used for thatching purposes. *Jháu* jungle (Tamarix Indica) also grows extensively on these *chars*, and is much used for fuel. A description of grass called *dal* grows spontaneously in the swamps and marshes, and is useful as food for elephants. There are no cane or reed producing grounds of any extent, although a few rattan jungles occur here and there, especially in the Kisorĺganj Sub-division. Long-stemmed rice is a good deal grown in the marshes, in water varying from thirteen to fifteen feet in depth. No increase in the length of stem has been effected by which this variety of rice can be made to grow in deeper water than formerly, nor does it appear that any experiment of the kind has yet been tried. The principal twenty-one varieties of long-stemmed rice are as follow: (1) *Bághráj*, (2) *Kuá mágárí*, (3) *Dulai*, (4) *Mátiáchang*, (5) *Rádhá Vaishnaví*, (6) *Gangá Ságar*, (7) *Khalsiáputi*, (8) *Nárikel bádí*, (9) *Goá Khubí*, (10) *Mánik dighá*, (11) *Dighá kálá máddri*, (12) *Kálá mánik*, (13) *Pakshiráj*, (14) *Aswin áman*, (15) *Mánik dighi*, (16) *Baran*, (17) *Porá Mágurá*, (18) *Bitá*, (19) *Dhepá*, (20) *Bara áman*, (21) *Chhota áman*. The general line of drainage in Maimansinh, as indicated by the flow of the rivers, is from north to south. The water of the swamps and marshes seldom finds its way towards the rivers, and hence arises the unhealthy state of the District—a subject which has attracted the attention of the Sanitary Commissioner.

MINERALS.—Lime is found in some parts of Susang Fiscal Division, and it still appears very probable that iron mines may be discovered in the Madhupur jungle, which has never yet been properly explored. The soil covered by this jungle is highly ferruginous, and it is stated that in former times smelting operations were carried on. Coal and lime have been found in the Gáro hills, but this tract does not belong to the District. There are no hot springs, nor any unusual physical phenomena, such as gorges or passes, in the District; excepting perhaps a cavern at a place called Joginĺghátá, but even this is not of great size.

FORESTS, JUNGLE PRODUCTS, &c.—The Madhupur forest, which covers an area of about four hundred and twenty square miles, produces *sál* trees and the *gajárí kát* timber used for upright supports in building; the annual value of the produce amounting to about £2000 or upwards. There are also forests in Juánsháhí, Atiá, and Kágmárí Fiscal Divisions, which yield similar produce to the annual value of from £700 to £1000 each. No accurate returns

exist as to the area of these last named forests, save that each extends about half a day's journey in length. The principal articles of jungle produce are bees'-wax, honey, *chiretá*, and a coarse kind of yam (*kachu*). Extensive uncultivated pasture grounds are situated in the northern plains along the foot of the hills, as well as in the Fiscal Divisions of Pukhariá, Kháliájurí, and Nasírujiál, but their area has not yet been ascertained. Many of the Gáros who live at the foot of the hills gain a subsistence by pasturing cattle in the forest, or by collecting and trading in jungle products. Others of them bring down from their hills, honey, wax, *pachápát* leaf, cotton, and other articles, which they barter for rice, salt, tobacco, brass utensils, and dogs, the latter being a favourite article of food among them.

FERÆ NATURÆ.—The wild animals of Maimansinh are numerous, and of many kinds. The *char* lands in the beds of the rivers in the north-west of the District are infested by tigers, and a few years ago were believed to contain more of these animals than any other part of India. These lands, however, are gradually being brought under cultivation, and it is believed that in the course of a few more years tigers will seldom be met with. Leopards are found in abundance, and are occasionally killed in the vicinity of the civil station, although more often near other towns and villages. Bears are found in the Madhupur jungle. The *sambar* deer and the hog deer are abundant. In addition to these there is the barking deer and the *barasinghá*, or large deer. The last named rare and beautiful deer is found in the grassy plains at the foot of the Gáro Hills, and is said to be only known in Lower Bengal in the three Districts of Silhet, Maimansinh and Rangpur. It is a finely proportioned clean-limbed animal. The rhinoceros, although now rarely seen, is occasionally found in some parts of the District. Elephants abound in the Gáro and Susang hills, and sometimes descend and commit great depredations among the crops in the villages below. They are yearly captured in considerable numbers by the Mahárájá of Susang. The Madhupur jungle does not contain so much large game as the *chars* of the Brahmaputra, but a few wild elephants are still found there. Wild buffaloes, which were formerly very common, have become scarce of late years, and the wild boar is much less plentiful than formerly. There is no organised system in the District for the destruction of wild animals, but rewards are given on the scale sanctioned by the

Board of Revenue for Bengal generally, namely—for tigers, 10s. per head; for leopards, 5s. per head; and for bears, 4s. per head. The number of deaths from wild beasts and snakes in 1869 was three hundred and twenty-three, and this may be taken to be a fair average of the annual loss of life from this cause. No rewards for snake killing have ever been given in Maimansinh. Small game is found in abundance in the north of the District, near the Gáro Hills; pea-fowl, jungle fowl, partridges, and several varieties of pheasants resorting in great numbers to this locality. The florican (Sypheotides Bengalensis) is plentiful in the sandbanks and *chars* in the north-west of the District. The black partridge (Francolinus vulgaris) is found in the Madhupur jungles. The *sáras* crane (grus Antigone), common crane (grus cinerea), and the various kinds of wild fowl are plentifully found in marshy localities. Among fish, the *mahásál*, found particularly in Susang, is worthy of remark. It is a very oily fish, and requires to be cooked immediately on being caught, or it becomes uneatable and offensive. The *hilsá* fish, which was once very common in the Brahmaputra, has become scarce of late years; the mango fish is unknown. The commoner varieties of fish are, however, abundant. No traffic is carried on in the skins of wild animals; but there exists a considerable trade in elephants, which contributes towards the wealth of the District. Several land-holders in the north of the District, and especially the Mahárájá of Susang, derive handsome incomes every year from this source.

Population.—Prior to 1872, no systematic attempt was made at an accurate enumeration of the District population. A rough estimate at the time of the Survey, between 1850 and 1856, by counting the number of houses and allowing an average of five inhabitants to each house, returned the population of the District at 947,240. In 1866, the Collector, in his District Report in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," based a subsequent estimate upon the figures returned in 1850-56 by the Survey. Estimating an average increase of population at the rate of two per cent. per annum, and allowing for a slight increase of area since the Survey, he calculated the population in 1866 at 1,197,823 souls.

The first regular census, taken in January 1872, proved that the Collector's previous estimate was one half below the truth. In taking the census, the want of village institutions or officials, through which to work, caused much trouble, inconvenience, and delay. Eventually it was done through the instrumentality of the *zamindárs*

and their servants. The total number of enumerators employed (including 54 in the municipal towns), was 9375. The results disclosed a total population of 2,349,917 souls, dwelling in 7601 villages or townships, and 308,008 houses, the average pressure of the population on the soil being 373 persons to the square mile. It does not appear that the census was quite so successful in Maimansinh as in some other Districts of the Dacca Division, owing to the want of a proper village agency to work with. The Collector, however, considers that "on the whole it has been very fairly done," and that "very correct and satisfactory results have been obtained in all the municipal towns." The following table illustrates the distribution of the population in each police circle (*tháná*) and subdivision, and the pressure per square mile, &c.

ABSTRACT OF POPULATION, AREA, &c., OF EACH POLICE CIRCLE (THANA) IN MAIMANSINH DISTRICT.

Sub-division.	Police Circle (Tháná).	Area in square miles.	Number of villages, mauzás, or townships.	Number of houses.	Total Population.	AVERAGES ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS REPORT. Persons per square mile.	Villages, mauzás, or townships per square mile.	Persons per village, mauzá, or township.	Houses per square mile.	Persons per house.
SADR.	Maimansinh,	665	505	30,999	220,933	332	·76	437	47	7·1
	Mádárígaṅj,	326	729	22,643	169,829	521	2·24	233	69	7·5
	Ghafargáon,	462	215	11,037	83,642	181	·47	389	24	7·6
	Netrakoná,	1,002	1,328	42,236	351,380	351	1·33	265	42	8·3
	Durgápur,	373	585	13,517	112,900	303	1·57	193	36	8·4
	Phulpur,	382	403	14,193	96,963	254	1·05	241	37	6·8
	Sub-divisional total,	3,210	3,765	134,625	1,035,647	323	1·17	275	42	7·7
JAMALPUR.	Jamálpur,	371	451	20,835	175,022	472	1·22	388	56	8·4
	Sherpur,	516	444	20,820	154,225	299	·86	347	40	7·4
	Diwánganj,	401	86	9,016	85,222	213	·21	991	22	9·5
	Sub-divisional total,	1,288	981	50,671	414,469	322	·76	422	39	8·2
ATIA.	Pingná,	120	222	12,842	99,391	828	1·85	447	107	7·7
	Madhupur,	350	774	17,104	126,922	363	2·21	164	49	7·4
	Atiá,	571	921	43,392	309,888	543	1·61	336	76	7·1
	Sub-divisional total,	1,041	1,917	73,338	536,201	515	1·84	280	70	7·3
KISORIGANJ.	Kisoríganj,	148	286	14,925	109,774	742	1·93	384	101	7·4
	Nikli,	163	279	13,334	97,035	595	1·71	348	82	7·3
	Bázidpur,	443	373	21,115	156,791	354	·84	420	48	7·4
	Sub-divisional total,	754	938	49,374	363,600	482	1·24	388	65	7·4
	DISTRICT TOTAL,	*6,293	7,601	308,008	2,349,917	373	1·21	309	49	7·6

* This was the area taken for the purpose of the Census in 1872, and the population per-centages are calculated from it. The Boundary Commissioner in July 1874 returned the exact area of the District at 6318·02 square miles.

Maimansinh is not a densely populated District, the pressure rising in few localities above 400 persons to the square mile. The most populous tracts are Pingná *tháná* lying between the Jamuná river and the Madhupur jungle, where the population is 828. to the square mile; and the strip along the left bank of the old bed of the Brahmaputra, where it averages about 600. Throughout the District as a whole, there are only 373 persons to the square mile.

POPULATION CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SEX, RELIGION, AND AGE. —The total population of Maimansinh District consisted in 1872 of 2,349,917 souls, *viz.*, 1,187,962 males and 1,161,955 females. The proportion of males in the total population is 50·5 per cent., and the proportion of females, therefore, 49.5 per cent. Classified according to religion and age, the census gives the following results: —Hindus:—under twelve years of age, males 138, 910 and females 111,056, total 249,966; above twelve years of age, males 271,856, and females 296,141, total 567,997; total of Hindus of all ages—males 410,766 and females 407,197, grand total 817,963, or 34·8 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in total Hindu population 50·2 per cent. Muhammadans:—under twelve years of age, males 319,027, and females 258,606, total 577,633; above twelve years, males 452,140 and females 489,862, total 942,002; total of Muhammadans of all ages, males 771,167, and females 748,468, grand total 1,519,635, or 64·7 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in total Muhammadan population, 50·7 per cent. Christians:—under twelve years of age, males 20 and females 19, total 39; above twelve years, males 53 and females 32, total 85; total of Christians of all ages, males 73 and females 51; grand total 124; proportion of males in Christian population 58·9. Other denominations not separately classified, consisting of aboriginal races and tribes:—under twelve years of age, males 2389 and females 2187, total 4576; above twelve years, males 3567 and females 4052, total 7619; total "Others" of all ages, males 5956 and females, 6239, grand total 12,195, or ·5 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in total "Others," 48·8 per cent. Population of all religions:—under twelve years of age, males 460,346 and females 371,868, total 832,214; above twelve years, males 727,616 and females 790,087, total 1,517,703; total population of all ages, males 1,187,962 and females 1,161,955, grand total 2,349,917; proportion of males in total District population, 50·5 per cent.

The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age in the population, arranged according to religion, is returned as follows:—Hindus, proportion of male children, 17·0 per cent., and of female children, 13·6 per cent. of the Hindu population; proportion of children of both sexes, 30·6 of the total Hindu population. Muhammadans,—proportion of male children, 21·0 per cent, and of female children 17 per cent; proportion of children of both sexes, 38·0 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population. Christians—proportion of male children, 16·1 per cent., and of female children, 15·3 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 31·4 per cent. of the total Christian population. "Other" denominations —proportion of male children, 19·6 per cent., and of female children, 17·9 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 37·5 per cent. of the total "Other" population. Population of all religions—proportion of male children, 19·6 per cent., and of female children, 15·8 per cent., proportion of children of both sexes, 35·4 per cent. of the total District population. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same class, is probably due to the fact, that natives consider girls have attained womanhood at a much earlier age than they hold that boys reach manhood.

The number and proportion of insanes, and of persons afflicted with certain other infirmities in Maimansinh District, is thus returned in the Census Report:—Insanes, males, 623, and females 256; total 879 or ·0374 per cent. of the District population. Idiots, males 101, and females 53; total 154, or .0066 per cent. of the population. Deaf and dumb, males 668, and females 298; total 966, or ·0411 per cent. of the population. Blind, males 1468, and females 833; total 2301, or ·0979 per cent. of the population. Lepers, males 1528, and females 234; total 1762, or ·0750 per cent. of the population. The total number of male infirms amounted to 4388, or ·3693 per cent. of the total male population; number of female infirms 1674, or ·1440 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of such infirms of both sexes was 6062, or ·2579 per cent. of the total District population.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION.—The following paragraphs relating to the occupations of the people, are condensed from the separate District census statements compiled by Mr C. F. Magrath, C.S. The figures must be taken as an approximation only, and the classification is in many respects unavoidably imperfect.

OCCUPATION OF MALES.—CLASS I.—Persons employed under Government, Municipal, or other local authorities :—Government police, 154; rural police, 4138; covenanted English officers, 6; subordinate judicial officers, 2; subordinate executive officers, 2; postal officials, 37; clerk, 1; unspecified, 29. Total of Class I., 4369.

CLASS II.—Professional persons, including professors of religion, education, law, medicine, fine arts, surveying, and engineering—(*a*) Religion—ministers and missionaries, 2; Hindu priests (*purohits*), 5728; spiritual guides (*gurus*), 415; astrologers (*áchárjyas*) 192; Muhammadan priests (*mullás*), 123; pilgrim guides (*pandás*), 3; priests of family idols (*pujháris*), 17; *khundkars*, 46; expounders of the *puráns* (*kathaks*), 2. (*b*) Education—Schoolmasters, 573; Sanskrit teachers (*pandits*), 185; Muhammadan clerks and interpreters (*munshis*), 23; almanac writers, 2. (*c*) Law.—Pleaders, 52; law agents (*mukhtárs*), 53; stamp vendors, 30. (*d*) Medicine.—Doctors, 509; Hindu medical practitioners (*kabirájs*), 274; vaccinators, 9; veterinary surgeon, 1; cow doctor (*gobaidya*), 1; accoucheurs, 208; compounder, 1. (*e*) Fine Arts—Photographer, 1; musicians, 2,629; singers, 232; dancers, 26; jugglers, 41; painters, 128. (*f*) Surveying and engineering—Surveyors or *ámins*, 9. Total of Class II., 11,515.

CLASS III.—Persons in service or performing personal offices :—Personal servants, 319; cooks, 25; *masálchis*, 7; barbers, 5,675; washermen (*dhobás*), 3,512; sweepers (*mihtars*), 259; water carriers, 38; gardeners, 317; genealogists (*ghataks*), 4; door-keepers (*darwáns*), 320; unspecified, 36,342. Total of Class III., 46,818.

CLASS IV.—Persons engaged in agriculture, and with animals :—(*a*) In agriculture.—Landholders (*zámíndárs*), 473; large leaseholders (*ijárádárs*), 211; rent-free tenure holders (*lákhirájdárs*), 11; subordinate landholders (*tálukdárs*), 8,345; permanent lease-holders (*patnídárs*), 67; holders of small estates (*mahaldárs*), 5; petty landholders (*jotdárs*), 26; ordinary cultivators, 495,391; *hawáládárs*, 5; land stewards (*gumáshtás*), 466; rent collectors (*tahsíldárs*), 759; village accountants (*patwáris*), 137; holders of land on a tenure of military or public service *páiks*, 246; *zamíndári* servants, 716; village head-men (*mandals*), 483; rent collectors in charge of estates owned by absentee landlords (*náibs*), 12; manager of estates, 1. (*b*) With animals.—Horse dealer, 1; cattle dealers, 2; pig dealers, 57; shepherds, 2; cow-herds, 367; elephant drivers (*máhuts*), 23; grooms, 56; grass-cutters, 6; hunters (*shikáris*) 31. Total of Class IV., 507,899.

CLASS V.—Persons engaged in commerce and trade :—(*a*) In conveyance of persons and goods.—Cartmen, 387 ; bullock-drivers, 206; palanquin-bearers, 4,505 ; cart-owners, 56 ; *sardárs*, 19 ; boatmen, 2,858; boat-owners, 141 ; seamen (*laskar*), 1 ; weighmen, 9. (*b*) In keeping and lending money, and in the sale of goods.—Bankers and *mahájans*, 2,534; pawnbrokers, (*poddárs*), 11 ; money changers, 2 ; money lenders, 4,642 ; merchants, 324 ; petty dealers (*bepáris*), 903 ; cotton dealers, 2 ; jute dealer, 1 ; shopkeepers, 23,538 ; grocers and spice dealers (*baniás*), 3 ; dealers in miscellaneous goods, 94 ; brokers or *daláls*, 12 ; clerks (*sarkárs*), 8; peon (*piyádás*), 711 ; vernacular clerks and writers (*muharrirs*), 110. Total of Class V., 41,077.

CLASS VI.—Persons employed in mechanical arts, manufactures, and engineering operations, and in the sale of goods manufactured and prepared for consumption :—(*a*) Constructive Arts—Bricklayers (*rájmistris*), 792 ; stone masons, 51 ; brick makers, 22 ; sawyers, 154; carpenters, 5,454; thatchers, 80; well diggers, 17 ; boat builders, 30. (*b*) Miscellaneous Artizans—Blacksmiths, 1769; coppersmiths, 32 ; braziers, 65 ; bell-metal workers (*kánsáris*), 98 ; *kalaigars*, 18 ; goldsmiths, 2,289 ; potters (*kumárs*), 4,350 ; glass makers, 9 ; lime vendors, 118 ; cabinet makers, 176 ; mat makers, 802 ; basket makers, 58 ; toy makers, 146 ; bead makers, 58 ; laquered ware makers, 14 ; shell carvers, 92 ; cane workers, 3 ; cotton spinners, 27 ; silk weavers, 8 ; cotton weavers, 14,505 ; jute weavers, 105 ; tailors, 897 ; shoe-makers, 613; cloth vendors, 1,594; gunny bag makers, 144; net makers, 18 ; thread sellers, 127 ; jute spinners, 13; bookbinders, (*daftris*), 12 ; bookseller, 1 ; paper makers, 52. (*c*) Dealers in Vegetable Food—Oil sellers, 4,430 ; grain sellers, 31 ; flour sellers, 8 ; rice sellers, 8 ; sellers of spices, 6 ; grain husker, 1 ; grain parchers, 24 ; costermongers, 2 ; confectioners, 39 ; sellers of molasses (*gur*), 191 ; honey sellers, 37. (*d*) Dealers in Animal Food—Butchers, 990 ; fishermen, 32,813 ; fishmongers, 110 ; milkmen, 4,096. (*e*) Dealers in Drinks—Brewers and distillers, 9 ; spirit sellers, 74 ; toddy sellers, 16. (*f*) Dealers in Stimulants—Opium sellers, 13 ; hemp (*ganjá*) sellers, 36 ; *pán* sellers, 2,178. (*g*) Dealers in Perfumes, Drugs, Medicines, &c.—Perfumer, 1 ; gunpowder sellers, 8 ; soap sellers, 4 ; *tikká* sellers, 2. (*h*) Dealers in Vegetable and Animal Substances—Firewood sellers, 267 ; bamboo sellers, 384 ; rope sellers, 402 ; hide sellers, 371 ; skinners and leather dealers (*chámárs*), 499. Total of Class VI., 81,863.

CLASS VII.—Miscellaneous persons not classified otherwise.—Pensioners, 21; beggars and paupers, 7,482; labourers, 22,402; unemployed, 4,171; male children, 460,345. Total of Class VII., 494,421. Grand total of males, 1,187,962.

OCCUPATION OF FEMALES.—The general caution prefixed to the paragraphs on the occupations of the people, applies, with particular force to this section. Class I. *nil.* Class II.—Professional Females—Priestesses, 57; female spiritual guides (*gurus*), 15; schoolmistress, 1; midwives (*dáis*), 16; musicians, 4; singers, 3; dancers, 13; total, 109. Class III.—Females in service or performing personal offices—Female domestic servants, 840; *ayahs*, 3; female barbers, 13; washerwomen, 59; sweepers, 14; brothel keeper, 1; prostitutes, 2,218; total, 3,148. Class IV.—Females employed in agriculture or with animals—Female landholders (*zamíndárs*), 46; female permanent leaseholders (*patnídárs*), 6; female rent free tenure holders (*lákhirájdárs*), 10; *jotdárs*, 5; subordinate land-holders (*tálukdárs*), 411; female cultivators with right of occupancy, 18; female ordinary cultivators, 1,465; female goat dealer, 1; female cow-herds, 8; total, 1,970. Class V.—Females engaged in commerce or trade—Carriage owner, 1; money lenders, 165; shop-keepers, 665; total, 831. Class VI.—Females employed in manufactures and in the sale of goods manufactured or prepared for consumption—Dealers in pottery, 19; basket maker, 1; mat makers, 42; bead makers, 13; spinners, 2,213; weavers, 91; net makers, 13; rice dealers, 695; costermongers, 39; oil dealers, 75; grain parchers, 104; grain huskers, 516; honey sellers, 4; seller of molasses (*gur*), 1; fishwomen, 454; milk sellers, 75; *pán* sellers, 5; hemp (*ganjá*) seller, 1; firewood sellers, 10; total, 4,371. Class VII.—Miscellaneous Females, not classified otherwise—Female pensioners, 40; beggars and paupers, 1,103; female labourers, 487; unemployed adult females, 777,910; female children, 371,986; total, 1,151,526. Grand total of females, 1,161,955.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE POPULATION.—As in other Districts of Eastern Bengal, the Muhammadans form the majority of the population. The Census Report of 1872 returned them as numbering 1,519,635, or 64·7 per cent. of the total population. The Hindus, including semi-aboriginal and aboriginal tribes who have embraced Hinduism as a religion, are returned at 817,963, or 34·8 per cent. of the District population. Excluding these aboriginal and semi-aboriginal tribes, the census returns the number of

persons of Hindu origin at 588,139, or only 25·02 per cent. of the population. The semi-Hinduised aboriginal castes are returned at 205,592, or 8·74 per cent. of the population. The remainder of the population is made up of a number of aboriginal tribes, returned in 1872 as numbering 36,452, or 1·55 per cent. of the population. Two-thirds of these aboriginal people have abandoned their primitive faiths, and embraced either Hinduism, Islám, or Christianity. The number of aboriginal castes retaining their ancient forms of religion is returned in the Census Report under the head of "others" at 12,195, or 0·5 per cent. of the population.

Mr C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation for Maimansinh, thus classifies the ethnical elements of the people. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, but arranged in a different order from that given here, and according to the rank in which they are held in local estimation.

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	
I.—Non-Asiatics.	
European.	
English,	21
Irish,	6
Scotch,	3
French,	1
Total,	31
II.—Mixed Races.	
Eurasians,	58
III.—Asiatics.	
A.—Other than natives of India and Burmah.	
Armenians,	9
Nepálese,	1
Total,	10
B.—Natives of India and Burmah.	
1.—*Aboriginal Tribes.*	
Chutiá,	4
Gáro,	10,997
Hájang,	24,936
Mikir,	11
Nat,	424
Santál	75
Uráon,	5
Total,	36,452

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	
2.—*Semi-Hinduised Aborigines.*	
Bágdí,	1,326
Báheliá,	19
Bediyá,	57
Bhuiyá,	7
Bind,	37
Buná,	492
Chain,	13
Chámár and Muchí,	5,934
Chandál,	123,262
Dom,	3,717
Nisí,	33
Dosadh,	17
Hádí Hotrí,	11,690
Hárí,	1,821
Káorá,	168
Koch,	12,420
Páliyá,	23
Rájbansí,	14,007
Mál,	20,166
Mandai,	5,901
Mihtar,	3,032
Bhuimálí,	633
Musáhar, &c.,	349
Pán,	94
Pásí,	25
Shikárí,	349
Total,	205,592

NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE.	
3.—*Hindus.*	
(i)—SUPERIOR CASTES.	
Bráhman,	33,414
Rájput,	2,470
Ghátwál,	383
Total,	36,267
(ii)—INTERMEDIATE CASTES.	
Baidya,	2,067
Bhát,	135
Káyasth,	105,537
Total,	107,739
(iii.)—TRADING CASTES.	
Agarwálá and Márwárí	7
Gandhabanik,	2,238
Khatri,	941
Suvarnabanik,	3,106
Others,	1,206
Total,	7,498
(iv.)—PASTORAL CASTES.	
Garerí,	3
Goálá,	17,513
Total,	17,516
(v.)—CASTES ENGAGED IN PREPARING COOKED FOOD.	
Gănrár,	314
Madak,	5,017
Total,	5,331
(vi.)—AGRICULTURAL CASTES.	
Bansí,	386
Bárui,	6,435
Támlí,	33
Kaibartta	77,798
Kurmí,	659
Málí	11,836
Sadgop,	581
Súdra,	3,617
Others,	15
Total,	101,360

NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE,	
(vii.)—CASTES ENGAGED CHIEFLY IN PERSONAL SERVICE.	
Behárá,	2,665
Dhanuk,	172
Dhobá,	12,587
Gajiyá,	1,757
Hajjám,	19,875
Kahar,	199
Total,	37,255
(viii.)—ARTISAN CASTES.	
Kacháru,	16
Kámár,	9,019
Kánsárí,	2,061
Kumár,	19,323
Rájmistrí,	4
Sánkhárí,	192
Sonár,	552
Sunrí,	35,982
Sutradhar,	21,479
Telí,	6,998
Kalu,	816
Total,	96,442
(ix.)—WEAVER CASTES.	
Jogí,	39,644
Kapálí,	11,393
Tántí,	7,392
Total,	58,429
(x.) LABOURING CASTES.	
Beldár,	781
Chunárí,	847
Mátiál,	1,138
Patiál,	2,769
Total,	5,535
(xi.)—CASTES OCCUPIED IN SELLING FISH AND VEGETABLES.	
Dalatiá,	97

NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE.	
(xii.)—BOATING AND FISHING CASTES.	
Jáliá,	36,399
Jhálo,	5,765
Málá,	10,061
Mánjhí,	3,938
Pátní,	21,726
Pod,	63
Tior,	14,451
Tilak Dás,	42
Total,	92,445
(xiii.)—DANCER, MUSICIAN, BEGGAR, AND VAGABOND CASTES.	
Báití,	1,006
Dhulí,	108
Nagarchí,	138
Palwárí,	630
Parwáriá,	19
Total,	1,901
(xiv.)—PERSONS ENUMERATED BY NATIONALITY ONLY.	
Hindustání,	141
Sikh,	19
Uriyá,	6
Total,	166

NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE.	
(xv.) — PERSONS OF UNKNOWN OR UNSPECIFIED CASTES.	8,098
Grand Total of Hindus,	576,079
4.—*Persons of Hindu origin not recognising Caste.*	
Vaishnav,	11,991
Sanyásí,	43
Native Christians,	26
Total,	12,060
5.—*Muhammadans.*	
Juláhá,	1,138
Mughul,	19
Pathán,	1,740
Sayyid,	203
Shaikh,	3,062
Unspecified,	1,513,473
Total,	1,519,635
TOTAL OF NATIVES OF INDIA,	2,349,818
TOTAL OF ASIATICS,	2,349,828
GRAND TOTAL,	2,349,917

HILL RACES AND ABORIGINAL TRIBES.—The hill races and aboriginal tribes found in Maimansinh District as returned in the foregoing District Census compilation are:—Gáros, 10,997; Hájangs, 24,936; Nats, 424; Santáls, 75; Mikirs, 11; Uráons, 5; and Chutiás, 4. The proper home of the Gáros is the hilly country to the north of the District, known as the Gáro Hills. This semi-independent tract, having been guilty of repeated raids on the low-land villages, was annexed to Bengal in 1872; and in 1874 was incorporated with the new Commissionership of Assam. The Gáros of Maimansinh dwell in villages of their own at the foot of the hills. They are a hard-working people, and of a more than usually robust constitution. They live in *changs* or hamlet-villages, each hut being raised some distance above the ground, and supported by stout props. In their habits, the Gáros are very uncleanly, and quite unrestricted

as to food. They eat dogs, jackals, foxes, frogs, snakes, &c., in a nearly raw or half-cooked state. They are excessively fond of liquor, and manufacture a description of rice beer called *pachwai*, of which they consume large quantities. Cultivation is conducted on a very rude system. A piece of jungle land is selected and cleared, and for this no rent is at first demanded by the proprietor. But after a year or two when the holding has been well cleared, the landlord claims his rent; upon which the Gáro cultivator who has reclaimed the land generally moves off in search of fresh ground, and the holding which he has rendered fit for regular cultivation, is leased out to a Bengali peasant. The chief agricultural products of the Gáros are rice and cotton; but many of them are also wood-cutters and dealers in fuel. The same remarks may be applied to the Hájangs, another numerous aboriginal tribe in this part of the country. The Mandai, Koch, Dalu, Hádi-Hotri, and Mech tribes, all bear strong points of resemblance to each other, and according to the Collector, are supposed to have descended from the Gáros, although they now partake more of the nature and disposition of the Hindu inhabitants of the plains. These people have no special religion of their own. Their intercourse with the Hindus has led them to adopt the rites and conceptions of Hinduism. They celebrate many of the Hindu religious ceremonies and sacrifices, and are now generally regarded as belonging to the lowest castes of the Hindu community. They earn their livelihood by cultivation, hunting, cutting and selling wood for fuel, &c. These and other aboriginal or semi-aboriginal castes who have adopted some form of Hinduism as their religion, will be again mentioned in my enumeration of Hindu castes.

CASTES.—The following is a list of 89 Hindu castes met with in Maimansinh District, arranged as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local public esteem, and showing their occupations, &c. The numbers of each caste are taken from Mr C. F. Magrath's Census compilation for the Maimansinh District. The following eight rank highest. (1.) Bráhman, members of the priesthood, and the highest caste in the Hindu social scale; many are also landholders or managers of landed estates, and others are employed in government or private service in respectable capacities; some are also traders. The pure Bráhmans are not numerous in Maimansinh, and these are generally poor, although still held in high esteem. Under the general name of Bráhman,

are included several distinct sects, who, though reported to have sprung from the same origin, have become degraded by receiving alms from people who belong to the lower castes. These despised Bráhmans are excluded from the community of the pure Bráhmans, and have as their followers only the lower castes, the receipt of whose charity caused their dishonour. Some of them are held in such low esteem that many men belonging to the higher castes of Súdras would refuse to eat with them. It is difficult, however, to give them a place in the caste list according to the degree of estimation in which they are held, and they are accordingly classed with the caste to which they originally belonged. The following are some of the denominations by which these degraded Bráhmans are known: —(*a.*) Barna Sarmá, who employ themselves as painters of idols, astrologers, and accept alms on the occasions of *srádhas* or obsequies; few in number; in easy circumstances, and not much despised. (*b.*) Agradání Bráhmans, who have lost their rank by the practice of accepting the first offerings at a *srádha*. These offerings consist of grain, oil-seeds, a cow with her calf, a small bit of gold, or a piece of cloth. The class is few in number, and as a rule its members are poor. Besides the above, there are other classes such as Sháhá Bráhmans, Kaibartta Bráhmans, Chandál Bráhmans, and others named after the lower Hindu castes to which they have attached themselves. These are held in much lower esteem than the two classes above named, and rank below several of the Súdra castes, to minister to whose religious wants is reckoned an act of degradation fatal to the purity of a Bráhman. The Census Report of 1872, returned the number of Bráhmans of all classes in Maimansinh District, at 33,414. (2.) Kshattriya or Khatri, a class of up-country traders, who claim to belong to the Kshattriya or warrior caste of Sanskrit times. It is believed, however, that there are no pure Kshattriyas in Lower Bengal. The Census Report terms them Khatris and classifies them as a trading caste; number in 1872 in Maimansinh District, 941. (3.) Rájputs, up-countrymen, employed in military service, and as guards, policemen, and door-keepers. They claim to be Kshattriyas by descent, and in 1872 numbered 2470 souls. (4.) Ghátwál, a class claiming to be Kshattriyas, employed as frontier police in protecting the *ghát*s or hill passes; number in 1872, 383. (5.) Baidya, hereditary physicians by caste employment; many of whom have abandoned their original profession, and are now landed proprietors, clerks, &c. As a class

they are moderately well off, and are held in much esteem; number in 1872, 2067. (6.) Káyasth, the writer caste of Bengal, employed as government servants, clerks, writers, &c., in all departments of business requiring a knowledge of letters; some are also landed proprietors. A few are wealthy men, but the greater number are said to be just above want. A second and lower class of Káyasths work as domestic servants for the first, and although not despised, are naturally not held in the same esteem as the higher class. The Census Report returns the total number of Káyasths, in Maimansinh District at 105,537. (7.) Bhát, heralds, bards, and genealogists; also carriers of letters of invitation on occasion of marriages, *sráddhas* and other ceremonies. The members of this caste or class claim to be Bráhmans who have lapsed from the dignity of pure Bráhmanhood, owing to their acceptance of alms from inferior persons. It is very doubtful, however, whether they have any right to the name of Bráhman, although they wear the *paitá* or sacred thread. In the Census Report they are classified as a distinct caste, their number in Maimansinh District being returned at 135. (8.) Márwárí and Agarwálá, up-country trading castes. These are two distinct castes, but returned together in the Census Report which gives their number in Maimansinh District at 7.

PURE SUDRA CASTES. Next in rank come the following twelve pure Súdra castes, from whose hands a Bráhman can take water or uncooked food without injury to his caste. Originally the respectable Súdra castes were only nine in number, and were called *nabasáks;* but some of them, such as the Baniás, have split up into two or more castes, of equal social rank; while others such as the Telís and Támbulís have by their influence and wealth forced themselves forward from a lower class into a position of social respectability. (9.) Nápit, barbers, 19,875 in number. (10.) Kámár or Karmokár, blacksmiths, 9,019 in number. (11.) Kumár or Kumbhar, potters and makers of earthen idols, 19,323 in number. (12.) Telí or Tilí, originally oil pressers and sellers by caste occupation; many have now abandoned their hereditary employment, and are traders, grain dealers, &c., some of them being rich men. Number in Maimansinh District in 1872, 6,998. (13.) Támlí or Támbulí, betel sellers by caste occupation, but now general traders, grain dealers, &c., 33 in number. (14.) Sadgop, the highest of the cultivating castes. Some are also small landed proprietors, and as a caste they are well-to-do, 581 in number. (15.) Súdra, a respectable

cultivating caste, also employed as domestic servants, and as boatmen, 3,617 in number. (16.) Málá or Málákar, gardeners and flower-sellers, who prepare and sell wreaths for marriages and other religious and social ceremonies, also firework manufacturers, 11,836 in number, and reported to be generally in well-to-do circumstances. (17.) Gandhabanik or Baniá, grocers and spice dealers, many of them also wealthy traders and merchants, 2,238 in number. (18.) Bárui, *pán* gardeners and sellers of betel leaf, 6,435 in number. (19.) Sánkhárí, shell cutters and makers of shell bracelets, 192 in number, and stated to be generally in fair circumstances and above want. (20.) Kánsárí, braziers, and manufacturers of brass and bell metal pots and plates, &c. There is a large settlement of this caste at Kágmárí in well-to-do circumstances. Throughout the District in 1872, the caste numbered 2,061 souls.

INTERMEDIATE SUDRA CASTES.—The following twelve form the intermediate Súdra castes, who are neither esteemed nor despised, and have moderate claims to respectability. (21.) Taipál, not given as a separate caste in the Census Report, but the collector returns them as a well-to-do class of grocers and petty shop-keepers. (22.) Goálá, milkmen and cattle dealers, 17,513 in number, as a class stated to be pretty well off. (23.) Garerí, an up-country pastoral caste, 3 only in number in Maimansinh District. (24.) Sháhá, traders and merchants. These originally belonged to the Surí or despised wine selling caste; but they have abandoned their hereditary occupation for general trade, and by their wealth and importance have pushed themselves forward into a higher social rank. The Sháhás are not mentioned as a separate caste in the Census Report, and their numbers are probably included in the Surís or wine sellers, to which caste they originally belonged. (25.) Kaibarttas, cultivators, fishermen, and boatmen; the third most numerous caste in the District, numbering 77,798 in 1872, and as a class said to be above the reach of want. (26.) Madak or Mayrá, sweetmeat makers, 5,017 in number. (27.) Gánrár, sellers and preparers of parched rice and other preparations of grain, 314 in number. (28.) Kurmí, a class of up-country cultivators, 659 in number. (29.) Vaishnav, not a caste properly speaking, but a sect of Hindus professing the principles inculcated by Chaitanya, a religious reformer of the fifteenth century. A full account of this sect will be found in my Statistical Accounts of the Districts of Dacca and the Twenty-four Parganás. The Census Report returns

the number of Vaishnavs in Maimansinh District at 11,991. (30.) Tántí, weavers, 7,392 in number, and generally poor. (31.) Sonár or Swarnakár, goldsmiths, 552 in number. (32.) Suvarnabanik, merchants, bankers, dealers in gold and silver, &c., 3,106 in number, and usually well off.

Low Castes.—The following thirty-three are low castes and are despised as such. (33.) Sutradhar or Chhutár, carpenters, 21,479 in number. (34.) Dhanuk, labourers and domestic servants, 172 in number. (35.) Dhobá, washermen, 12,587 in number. (36.) Kalu, oil pressers and sellers, 816 in number. (37.) Jogí, a caste of weavers, with customs of their own differing from those of other classes of Hindus. They have men of their own caste who officiate as their priests and religious instructors, and they generally bury their dead, although in other respects conforming to Hindu practices. In 1872 they numbered 39,644 in Maimansinh District, and, unlike other weaving castes, were reported to be in moderate circumstances and generally above want. (38.) Chandál, cultivators, fishermen, day labourers, &c.; some are also employed as menial servants in upper class households, but they are greatly despised and not allowed to touch any vessel containing drinking water, or any article of food. The Chandáls are the most numerous caste in Maimansinh District, numbering in 1872, 123,262. (39.) Kapálí, cultivators and weavers of gunny cloth, 11,393 in number. (40.) Chunárí, lime burners from shells, 847 in number. (41.) Beldár, labourers and cultivators, 781 in number. (42.) Káhár, an up-country caste, employed as domestic servants, water carriers, palanquin bearers, &c., 199 in number. (43.) Sunrí or Surí, wine and spirit sellers and distillers. As stated above, a number of families belonging to this caste have abandoned the occupation of their fellow castemen, and taken to trade, become wealthy, and established a claim to a higher social rank; they call themselves Sháhás, and are generally respected as wealthy traders. The number of Surís in Maimansinh District is returned by the census at 35,982. (44.) Kacháru, makers of lac bracelets, 16 in number. (45.) Behárá, palanquin bearers and labourers, 2665 in number. (46.) Bansí, cultivators and labourers, 386 in number. (47.) Gajiyá, domestic servants and cultivators, 1,757 in number. (48.) Rájmistrí, not a caste, the name simply signifying a bricklayer, an occupation which is followed by men of various castes. The District Census Compilation, however, gives it among the castes, and returns its number as 4. (49.) Jáliá, fisher-

men, 36,399 in number. (50.) Jhálá, not a distinct caste, but a class of fishermen, 5,765 in number. (51.) Málá, fishermen and boatmen, 10,061 in number. (52.) Mánjhí, not a separate caste, but a class of boatmen who act as helmsmen, 3,938 in number. (53.) Pod, fishermen, 63 in number. (54.) Tior, fishermen and boatmen, 14,451 in number. (55.) Mátiál, labourers, 1138 in number. (56.) Dalatiá, sellers of fish and vegetables, 97 in number. (57.) Pátní, ferrymen and boatmen, 21,726 in number. (58.) Tilak Dás, boatmen and fishermen, 42 in number. (59.) Bágdi, labourers and cultivators, 1,326 in number. (60.) Dhulí, native drummers and musicians, 108 in number. (61.) Báití, makers of fine floor matting, 1,006 in number. (62.) Patitá or Patiál, mat-makers, 2,769 in number. (63.) Nagarchí, musicians, 138 in number. (64.) Palwárí, musicians, 630 in number. (65.) Parwáriá, musicians, 19 in number.

SEMI-ABORIGINAL CASTES.—The following twenty-four are all semi-aboriginal castes and are utterly despised. (66.) Báheliá, labourers and cultivators, 19 in number. (67.) Bhuiyá, labourers and cultivators, 7 in number. (68.) Dom, basket makers, and also drummers, 3,717 in number. (69.) Nisí, basket makers, 33 in number. (70.) Dosadh, labourers, 17 in number. (71.) Chámár and Muchí, two distinct castes following the same occupation, that of leather dealers and shoemakers, returned together in the Census Report, 5,934 in number. (72.) Bediyá, a wandering gipsy-like tribe, who gain a livelihood by juggling, selling petty trinkets, and sometimes by theft, 57 in number. (73.) Bind, labourers, 37 in number. (74.) Buná, these people are immigrants from the Districts of Chutiá Nágpur, and are ordinarily engaged as labourers in Indigo factories, or as palanquin bearers, 492 in number. (75.) Chain, labourers, 13 in number. (76.) Mál, snake charmers, 20,166 in number. (77.) Mandai, cultivators and wood-cutters, 5,901 in number. (78.) Pán, labourers, 94 in number. (79.) Pási, sellers of toddy and palm wine, 25 in number. (80.) Shikárí, hunters, 349 in number. (81.) Koch, cultivators and fishermen, 12,420 in number. (82.) Páliyá or Páli, cultivators and labourers, 23 in number. (83.) Rájbansí, cultivators, fishermen, and labourers, 14,007 in number. The collector states that previous to 1790 there were no Rájbansís in this part of the country, and they appear to be emigrants from Rangpur District. (84.) Hádí Hotrí, cultivators, labourers, and wood-cutters, 11,690 in number. (85.) Káorá, swine keepers, 168

in number. (86.) Hárí, swine keepers and sweepers, 1821 in number. (87.) Musáhar, a very low caste of day labourers, 349 in number. (88.) Bhuimálí; this is said to be a caste peculiar to Eastern Bengal, its members are generally employed as domestic servants for all work which is considered degrading, such as sweeping the house, carrying torches, umbrellas, &c., 633 in number. (89.) Mihtar, sweepers, 3,032 in number.

The foregoing list is exclusive of 8,098 persons of unknown or unspecified caste; 166 persons enumerated by nationality only; 26 native Christians of Hindu origin; and 43 Sanyásís, or worshippers of Siva who reject caste. It includes 11,991 Vaishnavs, who are now regarded as a caste, although merely followers of the teachings inculcated by Chaitanya, a religious reformer of the fifteenth century whose chief doctrine was the equality of all men before their Maker. The Collector reports that no castes seem to be declining in point of number, but the relative importance of several is sensibly undergoing a change owing to the spread of English education and the more general diffusion of knowledge. The natural result has been the advance of the lower classes in wealth and position, and a tendency towards the social intermingling of separate castes.

THE MUHAMMADANS admit no distinction of caste, but are divided into the four following classes:—(1.) Sayyid or Mír, claiming direct descent from Muhammad. (2.) Shaikh; this class is divided into two rival sects, the Shiahs and Sunnís—the former are the followers of Alí, the son-in-law of Muhammad, and the latter the followers of the first four Khalífás or successors of Muhammad. (3.) Pathán or Khán—Afgháns and their descendants. (4.) Mirzá or Beg.

RELIGIOUS DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—The population is divided into Muhammadans, Hindus, Bráhma Samáj followers, a few Christians, and a number of aboriginal tribes following various primitive faiths.

THE MUHAMMADANS form the majority of the population. In 1872 the census returned their number as follows—Males, 771,167, and females, 748,468; or 64·7 per cent. of the District population. The Collector states that no definite reason can be assigned for the preponderance of Muhammadans in the District, the proportion of Muhammadans to Hindus being nearly as two to one. It is locally reported that during the days of Musalmán supremacy the difference was much greater than at present. The religion of Islám has now ceased to make any further progress among the people. The

present Muhammadan population consists chiefly of the sect known as Faráizís, in whom centre much of the wealth and influence of the District, some of its members being very large landholders. Many of the poorer among the Faráizís were formerly known as sympathisers with the Wahábi disaffection, and a small number went from Maimansinh to the rebel camp beyond our north-west frontier, for the purpose of co-operating with the fanatics in that part. The Collector adds that special enquiries prove that Wahábi ill-feeling is now extinguished in the District. No new sects of Muhammadans are springing up. Nearly all the rich Musalmán landed families of Maimansinh are said to have settled in the District subsequently to the acquisition of the country by the English.

HINDUS.—The Hindus, as loosely grouped together for religious purposes in the Census Report of 1872, numbered 410,766 males, and 407,197 females; total, 817,963, or 34·8 per cent. of the District population. The Hindu population in the south-eastern part of the District mostly belong to the Vaishnav sect, and pay great veneration to the memory of one Rám Krishna Gosáin, who is said to have first introduced Vishnuvite tenets into this part of the country. This sect has its head-quarters in the neighbouring District of Silhet, but it has also many monasteries and places of worship (*ákrás*) in Maimansinh. The Mandai tribe, supposed to be offshoots of the Gáros, who inhabit the plains at the foot of the northern hills, have adopted some of these religious usages, and are now generally ranked with the lowest castes of Hindus, although not yet recognised by the more orthodox.

THE BRAHMA SAMAJ or Theistic Sect of Hindus does not, according to the Collector, number over 50 *professed* followers in Maimansinh District, but he states that the reformed faith appears to be gaining ground. In the Census Report, the members of the Bráhma Samáj are not shown separately, but are included with the general Hindu population. The Bráhma Samáj at the town and head-quarters station of Násírábád was established about twenty years ago by the exertions of a few educated natives of the District, some of whom still live and take a great interest in the prosperity of the society. The number of Bráhmas is said to have considerably increased of late years, and in 1871 the Collector reported that the Samáj was attended by most of the educated natives of the town. Although the majority are not very well off in circumstances, the members of the Samáj have, by means of subscriptions among themselves, built a substantial house

for the purposes of their worship and meetings. Branches of the Samáj have also been established at Kisorĺganj, Sherpur, Husainpur, Jangalbárí, and Bangáon, after the fashion of the one at the civil station. Missionaries from the principal Samáj at Calcutta also make periodical visits to the branch Samájs in Maimansinh, and with considerable success. The members of the Samáj are all residents of the towns, and the collector stated in 1871 that no attempt had then been made to preach the tenets of the reformed faith among the poorer classes forming the rural population.

THE CHRISTIAN population of Maimansinh District numbers 124 souls, namely, 73 males and 51 females. Deducting 98 as the number of European, Eurasian, and Armenian Christians, there remains a total native Christian population in Maimansinh of only 26 souls. These chiefly reside at the civil station of Nasírábád, and are nearly all employed as Government clerks or as missionaries; as a class they are not in good circumstances.

DISTRIBUTION OF THE PEOPLE INTO TOWN AND COUNTRY.—The population of the District is almost entirely rural, and the Census Report discloses only five towns as containing a population of five thousand souls or upwards, namely,—Maimansinh or Nasírábád, the civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District, although not the most populous town, population, 10,068; Jamálpur, population, 14,312; Kisorĺganj, population, 13,637; Sherpur, population, 8,015; and Dhánikholá, population, 6,730. The total urban population thus disclosed amounts to only 52,762 souls, leaving a balance of 2,297,155 as forming the rural population. The dwellers in the towns, therefore, only make up 2·24 per cent. of the total population of the District. The Muhammadans do not furnish an equal proportion of the town population as of the entire District population. The Musalmáns, who throughout Maimansinh amount to 64·7 per cent. of the people, comprise only 59·49 per cent. of the residents in the towns. The Hindus, on the other hand, who form 34·8 per cent. of the entire population, furnish 40·16 per cent. of the town population. The remaining ·35 per cent. of the town population is made up of a sprinkling of Christians in Nasírábád or Maimansinh town, and of "others," principally in Jamálpur town. The District Census Compilation thus classifies the villages and towns:—There are 3,974 villages containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 2,363 with from two hundred to five hundred; 904 with from five hundred to a thousand; 304 small towns with from one

thousand to two thousand; 39 with from two to three thousand; 9 with from three to four thousand; 3 with from four to five thousand; 2 towns with between six and ten thousand; and 3 with between ten and fifteen thousand inhabitants; total number of towns and villages, 7,601. The following are the particulars of the five principal towns in the District containing a population exceeding five thousand souls.

MAIMANSINH OR NASIRABAD, the civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District, although not the most important or most populous town, is situated in Alapsinh Fiscal Division, on the W. bank of the Brahmaputra river, in 24° 45′ 15″ north latitude, and 90° 27′ 21″ east longtitude. The Census Report returns the following details of population:—Muhammadans—males 3,007, and females 2,371; total, 5,378. Hindus—males 3,748, and females 883; total, 4,631. I am unable to explain the apparent discrepancy in the proportion of females to males in the Hindu population of the town. Everywhere else the number of the sexes is nearly equal, males being slightly in excess of the females, as might be expected in a town population. Christians—males 39, and females 19; total, 58. Other denominations not separately classified—males 1, females *nil;* total, 1. Population of all religions—males 6,795, and females 3,273; total, 10,068. The town has been constituted a municipality. The total municipal income for 1869, as returned to me by the Collector, amounted to £685, 13s., and the expenditure to £580, 19s. The returns for 1871 show a decrease in municipal revenue and expenditure. According to the District Census Statement, the gross municipal income of Maimansinh or Nasírábád town in 1871 amounted to £473, 6s., and the gross municipal expenditure to £470; average rate of municipal taxation, 7½ *dnnás*, or 11¼d. per head of the population. The town is of no great commercial importance, as the river on which it is situated—the Brahmaputra—is only navigable for large boats in the rainy season; nor is it noted for any historical event, and with the exception of two Hindu temples, it contains no buildings of any antiquity or particular interest. The river is crossed by a ferry just opposite the town. Nasírábád town contains good English and Vernacular schools, a charitable dispensary, and has a municipal committee for purposes of sanitation and conservancy, besides a small body of municipal police.

JAMALPUR, the head-quarters station of the sub-division of the

same name, and the most populous town in the District, is situated in Jafarsháhí Fiscal Division, on the west bank of the Brahmaputra, in 24° 54′ 55″ north latitude, and 89° 59′ 30″ east longitude. The Census Report gives the following details of the population of the town and municipality. Muhammadans—males 4,956, and females 4,784; total, 9,740. Hindus—males 2,303, and females, 2,149; total, 4,452. Christians, *nil.* Other denominations not separately classified—males 51, and females 69; total, 120. Population of all denominations—males 7,310, and females 7,002; total, 14,312. This population refers to the municipal limits, which include several neighbouring villages grouped together for municipal purposes. The population of the town or village itself was returned at 2,458 in 1867. The Collector returns the total municipal income of the town in 1869 at £349, 15s., and the expenditure at £208, 6s. In 1871 the gross municipal income amounted to £344, 6s., and the expenditure to £314, 8s.; average rate of municipal taxation, 3 *ánnás* and 10 *pie*, or 5¾d. per head of the population. Jamálpur town is distant thirty-two miles from Nasírábád, with which it is connected by a good road. A ferry across the Brahmaputra is maintained opposite the town, which contains a subordinate judge's court, police station, Government school, &c. Jamálpur was formerly a military station, but no troops are now stationed there, or have been since 1857.

KISORIGANJ, the head-quarters of the subdivision of the same name, is situated in Joár Husainpur Fiscal Division, thirteen miles east of the Brahmaputra river, in 24° 26′ 20″ north latitude and 90° 48′ 40″ east longtiude. The District Census Report gives the following details of its population. Muhammadans,—males 3,533 and females, 3,802: total 7,335. Hindus,—males, 3,146 and females 3,148: total 6,294. Christians,—*nil.* Other denominations not separately classified,—males 3 and females 5: total 8. Population of all denominations,—males, 6,682, and females, 6,955: total 13,637. This is the population of the municipal union which comprises several contiguous villages, rather than of the town of Kisoríganj itself. The population of the town in 1867 was returned at about 1200 only. The gross income of the municipality in 1871, is returned at £240, 8s., and the gross expenditure at £353, 14s., average rate of municipal taxation 2¾ *annás* or 4⅛d. per head of the population. Kisoríganj is connected with the Brahmaputra river by a road; and also by a creek, which, however, is only navigable during

the rainy months. A fair is annually held here during the *Jhulan játrá*—a festival in celebration of the birth of Krishna lasting for a month, from about the middle of July to the middle of August.

SHERPUR town is situated in the Fiscal Division of the same name, nine miles north of Jamálpur, in 25° 0′ 58″ north latitude, and 90° 3′ 6″ east longitude. The Census Report returns its population as follows Muhammadans,—males 2,197, and females 2,100 : total 4,297. Hindus,—males 2,053, and females 1,665 : total 3,718. Christians and "others"—*nil.* Population of all denominations—males, 4,250, and females, 3,765 : total, 8,015. The town comprises also the villages of Náráyanpur and Barukpárá, and lies between the rivers Shirí and Mirghí, about half a mile from the former and one mile from the latter. There is no water-carriage to the town, and even water for drinking and household purposes is obtained solely from tanks. Sherpur contains a fine Hindu temple, and several masonry houses, but the buildings in general are in bad repair, and the place has a decayed and neglected appearance. A fairly good road connects Sherpur with Jamálpur, the Brahmaputra river being crossed by a ferry. The town contains a police station, a post office, a subordinate judge's court, and a good school. It was constituted a municipality under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, and a small body of municipal police is maintained for the protection of the town. In 1869, the total municipal revenue, according to the Collector, amounted to £316, 6s., and the expenditure to £189, 14s. 6d. In 1871 the gross municipal revenue, according to the Census Report, amounted to £281, 4s., and the gross expenditure to £207, 16s., average rate of taxation 5 *ánnás* and 7 *pie*, or 8⅜d. per head of the population.

DHANIKHOLA, in the Fiscal Division of Alapsinh, is situated on the Satuá river, an insignificant stream, in 24° 39′ 10″ north latitude, and 90° 24′ 11″ east longitude. Population ; Muhammadans—males 2,399, and females 2,236 : total 4,635. Hindus,—males 1,038, and females 1,057 : total 2,095. Christians and "others"—*nil.* Population of all denominations—males 3,437, and females 3,293: total 6,730. This town has not been constituted a municipality.

The table on the next page shows the population, etc., of the foregoing five towns in Maimansinh District containing a population of upwards of five thousand inhabitants.

Besides the towns thus enumerated there are several others containing less than five thousand inhabitants, and therefore not shown separately in the Census Report, but which are of suffi-

cient importance to be given here. The list on the following pages of the more important villages arranged according to the *pargands* or Fiscal Divisions in which they are situated, is condensed from Appendix B to Mr Reynold's Report on Maimansinh. The population figures for these villages refer to the year 1867.

RETURN OF POPULATION IN TOWNS CONTAINING MORE THAN 5000 INHABITANTS IN MAIMANSINH DISTRICT (1872).

Name of Town.	Muhammadans.	Hindus.	Christians.	Others.	Total.	Gross Municipal Income.	Gross Municipal Expenditure.	Rate of Taxation per head.
						£ s. d.	£ s. d.	s. d.
Maimansinh or Nasírábád,	5,378	4,631	58	1	10,068	473 6 0	470 0 0	0 11¼
Jamálpur,	9,740	4,452	...	120	14,312	344 6 0	314 8 0	0 5⅜
Kisoríganj,	7,335	6,294	...	8	13,637	240 8 0	353 14 0	0 4⅛
Sherpur, .	4,297	3,718	...	...	8,015	281 4 0	207 16 0	0 8⅜
Dhánikholá,	4,635	2,095	...	...	6,730			
Total, .	31,385	21,190	58	129	52,762	1,339 4 0	1,345 18 0	0 6 Average.

I. ALAPSINH, FISCAL DIVISION. (1.) Maimansinh or Nasírábád, the civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District: details given above. (2.) Muktágáchhá, a town situated about eleven miles west of Nasírábád, with which it is connected by a fair road; population about 1,200, of whom the majority are Hindus. Three markets are held here, one daily, one weekly, and one bi-weekly. This town is the residence of most of the Hindu landholders of the Fiscal Division. (3.) Dhápuniá, about five miles south-west of Nasírábád on the river Satuá. Although the river is only navigable during the rainy season, the village is an important mart for grain, of which large quantities are kept stored. (4.) Bairá Bháluká, on the high road to Dacca, situated on the Brahmáputra about five miles south-east of Nasírábád; population 1,192. (5.) Bhábkhálí, on the Brahmaputra, about seven miles south-east of Nasírábád; population 872; there is an Indigo Factory in this village. (6.) Káthál, nine miles south-east of Nasírábád; population 1,625. (7.) Rámpur; fourteen miles south of Nasírábád; population 2,173. (8.) Bálipárá, sixteen miles south-east of Nasírábád; population 1,779. (9.) Dhulá, one and a-half miles south of Bálipárá; population 1,090. In addition to a bi-weekly market, there is a considerable daily bázár here. (10.) Baihár, on the Satuá river, nine miles south of Nasírábád; population 3,206. (11.) Tirsal, eleven miles south of Nasírábád, where a

cattle market of some importance is held; population, 1,345. (12.) Gobindganj, on the Satuá at its junction with the Brahmaputra, five miles north-west of Nasírábád. There are large warehouses here for storing grain, and a fair is held twice a-year, in March and October. (13.) At Báigunbárí situated near the last named village, there is a very large Indigo Factory belonging to Mr Brodie. A number of pilgrims visit this village on the occasion of a festival in March or April for the purpose of bathing in the Brahmaputra.

II. ATIÁ FISCAL DIVISION. (14.) Atiá is the principal village of the recently created Sub-division of the same name, but is not a place of great importance.

III. BÁOKHAND FISCAL DIVISION. (15.) Amtalá, twenty two miles north-east of Nasírábád; population 1,922, principally Hindus. The village is the residence of a great number of wealthy cloth merchants, and contains a large Hindu Temple.

IV. BARBAZU FISCAL DIVISION. (16.) Kadím Hámjání, on a branch of the river Jamuná, over which there is a ferry, fourteen miles south of Subankhálí; there is a large mosque in the village.

V. TAPPÁ HAZRÁDI. (17.) Karímganj, nine miles east of Kisorí-ganj, and about twenty-two miles from the Brahmaputra river; population 1,646. This village is the principal bázár for the people of the low country in the South-east. (18.) Abdullápur, on the Brahma-putra river; population 4,085, almost entirely Muhammadans. (19.) Chándpur, on a small stream called the Pankuriá river, thirteen miles east of the Brahmaputra; population, 1,315. The village is well known as the residence of many native merchants and dealers. (20.) Bangáon; population, 1,505. There are several Hindu Temples in this village, and it is the residence of many wealthy merchants. (21.) Kátiádí, on the Brahmaputra; population, 400. As a commercial mart, this place has lost its former great importance owing to the drying up of the channel of the river on which it stands; it is still, however, a much frequented bázár. (22.) Kálíachápra, an inland mart of some importance, eight miles east of the Brahmaputra. A large market is held on Tuesdays and Fridays, at which there is an abundant supply of grain and other country produce.

VI. JOÁR HUSAINPUR FISCAL DIVISION. (23.) Kisoríganj, head quarters of the Sub-division of the same name; details given in a previous page. (24.) Dárinagar, a village on the Brahmaputra, contains a large indigo factory, the property of Mr Wise of Dacca. (25.) Husainpur, a small village on the Brahmaputra, the population

of which is only 180; but the village site is entirely occupied by shops, and the place is a large mart for all articles of country produce. (26) Haibatnagar, two miles west of the Sub-divisional Station. The village is an inconsiderable one, but a large and well-supplied bi-weekly market is held there, and the place is the residence of the most influential landholders of that part of the country.

VII. JAFARSHÁHÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—(27.) Jamálpur, the head-quarters town of the sub-division of the same name, details given in a previous page. (28.) Chandrá, on the Jhinái river, two miles north-west of Jamálpur, contains a well-known indigo factory belonging to Mr Brodie. There is also a ferry here, which is only used in the rainy season.

VIII. JUÁNSHÁHÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—(29.) Bázidpur, a village of 742 houses, which possesses a force of Municipal Police under Act x. of 1856. The receipts and expenditure of the Municipal Committee in 1869-70, were as follows:—Revenue, £68, 12s. 6d.; expenditure, £35, 12s. 9d.

IX. KHALIÁJURÍ FISCAL DIVISION.—(30.) The village of Khaliájurí is the only place of any note in this Fiscal Division; it is situated on the river Dhanu, which is navigable throughout the year; the superior landlords' revenue offices are located in this village.

X. TAPPÁ KURIKHÁI FISCAL DIVISION.—(31.) Ghurái, on the Ghorá-utrá river; population, 2,495; this village is the residence of many rich native merchants, chiefly dealers in cloth and Dacca muslin; it is also a large mart for dried fish. (32.) Ulákándí or Bhairab Bázár, situated on the Brahmaputra river, just at the tri-boundary junction point of the Districts of Dacca, Tipperah, and Maimansinh, is the most important commercial mart of the District, and a large trade is carried on between here and Náráinganj; population, 1,500; the village contains a good school, and a well supplied cattle market.

XI. MAIMANSINH FISCAL DIVISION.—(33.) Madanpur, twenty-two miles east of Nasírábád; population, 973. The village contains two large mosques, one of which is known by the name of Sháh Rumir Masjid. The story runs, that a member of the royal family of Constantinople wandered to this village during an attack of madness, but eventually recovered his health, and subjugated and converted to Muhammadanism the neighbouring tract of country. A masonry tomb to his memory exists on the west side of the village. (33.) Sambhuganj, three miles east of Nasírábád; one of the largest marts in the District, where all kinds of country produce, and many im-

ported articles are procurable ; population, 2,257. The court of the subordinate Judge of Mádárganj is located in the village. (34.) Gauripur, eleven miles east of Nasírábád ; a village of some note, although the population is very small. Three bi-weekly markets are held in the village for all kinds of country produce, cattle, and brass and copper utensils.

XII. NASÍRUJIÁL FISCAL DIVISION.—(35.) Gujádiá on the river Narsundá on the southern border of the Fiscal Division ; population, 2,345. A Vaishnav *ákrá*, or monastery, is situated in the village. (36.) Kandiurá, a small village, but noticeable as the site of a Government distillery. (37.) Phatiká, on the Magrá river, a petty village, but a large and well known market is held in it twice a-week for the sale of all kinds of country produce, especially of grain. It is the most frequented mart in this part of the District. The Magrá river is a stream of no great width, but navigable for boats of some size all the year round. (38.) Barsíkurá, on the Dhanu river ; population, 450. This village is the principal place where the so-called Dacca cheese is manufactured. There are extensive grazing grounds in the neighbourhood where large numbers of buffaloes are pastured.

XIII. PUKHURIÁ FISCAL DIVISION.—(39.) Subankhálí, situated on the Jamuná river over which there is a ferry, forty-four miles west of Nasírábád, with which it is connected by a tolerably good road. It is one of the large markets of the District, and a considerable export and import trade is carried on. The village also contains an indigo factory, the property of Mr W. Baldwin. (40.) Madhupur, a well-known village on the western border of the Madhupur jungle. It contains two Hindu temples, several substantial houses, and a police station.

XIV. RAN BHÁWÁL FISCAL DIVISION.—(41.) Biru or Datt's Bázár, situated on the Brahmaputra river ; population, 940. This is one of the principal marts of the District, and a considerable trade is carried on with Náráinganj. (42.) Barmi, on the river Banar, close to the borders of Dacca District ; there is an indigo factory in the village, and charcoal is largely manufactured.

XV. SHERPUR FISCAL DIVISION.—(43.) Sherpur, the principal town in the *parganá* ; details given on a previous page. (44.) Char Garhjaripá, a small village with a population of only 300, but noticeable as containing the remains of an old mud fort, the ruined walls of which are still twelve or fourteen feet in height. The fort is locally believed to have been built by one of the independent

Muhammadan kings of Bengal. (45.) Mádárpur, six miles north-west of Sherpur; population, 425. This is a village of some importance in the neighbourhood, and is the only place at which carts are procurable. A large market is held twice a-week, and there is a well supplied daily bázár. The village contains a large sheet of water, known as the Beshá *bil*, abounding in wild fowl. (46.) Nalitábárí, thirteen miles north-east of Sherpur, and one of the largest marts in the northern part of the District. A good supply of cotton produced in the Gáro Hills is brought to market here, as well as all kinds of country produce.

XVI. Susang Fiscal Division.—(47.) Durgápur on the Someswarí river; the principal village of the Fiscal Division, and the site of the palace of the Mahárájá of Susang; population, about 1000; the palace is large, but is now in a dilapidated state. (48.) Náráyandahar, a small village eighteen miles north-east of Nasírábád, which contains some old buildings, and is noted as being the residence of the Majumdár landholders, influential proprietors in the Fiscal Division. (49.) Púrabdeholá, a large village with several substantial masonry buildings and tanks. It also contains an extensive sheet of water, called the Ráj-deholá *bil*, which is beautifully clear and limpid.

The residents of the towns are said to give rise to a larger share of the work of administration than the rural population. With regard to the proportion of the agricultural to the non-agricultural community, the collector states, that taking Hindus and Musalmáns together, out of every thirty-eight inhabitants, twenty-nine are engaged in agriculture, and nine in other occupations. The Census Report of 1872 returns the total number of male adult agriculturists at 514,667, and male adult non-agriculturists at 212,949.

Material Condition of the People.—The people of the District are making rapid progress towards improvements of many kinds. A common husbandman now-a-days is much better dressed, has fewer unsatisfied wants, and more knowledge what tends to promote his comfort, than people of his class had twenty years ago. An ordinary well-to-do shopkeeper now dresses almost as well as a landholder did twenty years ago. He wears a clean white waistcloth, (*dhutí*), a coat (*pirán*), a cotton shawl (*chádar*), &c. The clothing of an average cultivator generally consists of a waistcloth and cotton shawl. A well-to-do shopkeeper's dress is worth from 3 rs. to 4 rs, or 6s. to 8s., and that of an average peasant about 1/8 rs.

or 3s. The former uses six, the latter four suits ayear; so that the annual cost of clothing in the first case amounts to from 18 rs. or £1, 16s. to 24 rs. or £2, 8s., and in the latter case to about 6 rs. or 12s. The homestead of a well-to-do shopkeeper generally consists of five or six separate huts in a single enclosure, furnished with two or three wooden chests, a chair or seat, and a service of brass or bell-metal plates and pots, numbering from ten to fifteen. An average husbandman's homestead consists of two or three huts, furnished with a few brass or bell-metal pots and plates, and some coarse mats for sitting or sleeping upon. Occasionally, he has also a chest for keeping his clothes in. The food of a well-to-do shopkeeper generally consists of rice, pulses, vegetables, fish and milk, and the Collector estimates the monthly living expenses of a middling sized household of this class, consisting of a man, wife, and two children, at 12 rs., or £1, 4s., including charges for clothing. An ordinary peasant eats coarser rice, with pulses, vegetables, and occasionally milk, and the Collector estimates the monthly expenses of a household of this class consisting of four members, to amount to about 8 rs. or 16s., including cost of clothing, &c.

AGRICULTURAL.—The staple product of Maimansinh is rice, of which three crops are cultivated—(1.) the *áus*, or autumn crop; (2.) the *áman*, or winter crop, and (3.) the *boro*, or spring crop. The Deputy Collector reports that *áus* rice is sown from February to April and even May, and reaped from the middle of May till about the middle of September. It seems that the harvest takes place earliest in the western Fiscal Divisions of the District; afterwards in the northern, and last of all in the southern tracts. In the south, there are only two kinds of *áus* rice cultivated; namely, the *jalí* and the *áus* proper; but in the western parts, the varieties of *áus* rice are much more numerous. Their names are as follow:—*chápánái*, *sháitá*, *hásá kumariá*, *ghritá kánchaní*, and *bháturí*, all of which are sown in May, and require a dry soil for their production. Other varieties of *áus*, namely, *kálámánik*, *báliábákrí*, *pánkait*, *kálá mádárí*, *káchhá lání*, *garphá*, *kurchá murí*, *lakshmí birál*, *kedá chák* and *baulá*, are sown in dry soil in April, and reaped in July and August. The *áman*, or winter rice, forms the great crop of the year. It is sown in April, May, and June, and reaped in October, November, and December. The principal varieties of this rice are thus named:—*baran*, *dolái*, *arálíá*, *kálíjirá*, *básiráj*, *ráimukhí*, which require marshy land to grow in, and *dhepá kákuá*, *til bájáil*, *mánik dighá*, *chámárá*, *madhu sáil*, *áswiná*, *málatí*, *ráj pál*,

kách kamal, and *pakshiráj*, which grow best in dry lands. The *ropá*, or transplanted *áman* crop, is composed of three varieties :—*kálijirá*, *básiráj*, and *ráimukhí*, which are all grown in moist soil, being sown in April, transplanted in June, July, and August, and reaped in November and December. The *boro*, or spring rice, is sown in November and December, and reaped in March, April, and May. This is also a transplanted crop, and grows best in low marshy lands. The other cereal crops are as follows:—wheat (*goham*), sown in dry land in November, and reaped in March; oats (*jab*), sown and reaped at the same seasons, and on the same variety of land; Indian corn (*bhuttá*), sown on high lands in April, and cut in July. The following are the principal pulses and green crops cultivated in Maimansinh ; *máskalái* (phaseolus radiatus), sown in dry lands in September and October, and gathered in December and January ; *matar* or peas (pisum sativum), sown on dry land in October, and gathered in February; *Khesárí* (lathyrus sativus), sown on dry land in October, and cut in March ; *arhar* or *harar* (cytisus cajan), sown in dry land in October, and reaped in May. *Musurí* (ervum lens), sown in dry land in October and November, and reaped in January and February; *mug* (phaseolus mungo), sown in dry land in September and October, and reaped in December and January ; *thíkrí* (phaseolus mela nospermus), sown in dry land in Septemtember, and gathered in January ; *sim*, or beans, sown in dry land in September, and gathered in January, February, and March, extensively used as a vegetable by the poor classes; *chiná*, a species of millet (panicum miliaceum), and *káon*, are sown in dry land in January, and reaped in April. Of oil seeds, *masiná*, or linseed (linum usitatissimum), is sown in dry land in October, and reaped in January and February; *sarishá*, or mustard (sinapis dichotoma), in dry land in October and November, and cut in January and February ; and *til* (sesamum Orientale), sown in dry land in March, and cut down in May.

Rice Cultivation.—The mode of cultivating rice is the same as that in use in other Districts. The Collector reports that some improvement has taken place of late years in the quality of the rice grown near the town, owing to the increased demand of the well-to-do and educated classes residing in the Civil Station. No such improvement has however taken place in the quality of rice grown in the interior. The extent of land under rice cultivation is said to have increased in quantity within the last twenty years by about twenty per cent. The different preparations made from rice, and their prices are as follows :—*muri*, paddy boiled and afterwards

parched and husked, sold at three halfpence per pound; *chirá*, paddy steeped in water, and afterwards fried, sold at three farthings a pound; *khai*, paddy slightly parched and husked, sold at three halfpence per pound; *mad*, a spirit distilled from rice, sells at about a shilling a quart; *Pachwai*, a fermented rice liquor is prepared by the Gáros and other border tribes, and largely consumed by them. It is generally made for home consumption, but when sold, fetches about two pence farthing a quart.

MISCELLANEOUS CROPS.—*Nil* (indigo) is somewhat extensively grown, being sown in dry land in September and October, and cut in May and June. Tobacco is sown in dry land in October and November, and cut in March. Sugar-cane is not very largely grown, but there are several considerable plantations of it in Husainsháhí and Joár Husainpur Fiscal Divisions; it is sown in dry land in February and April, and cut in December and January. *Pán* creepers are raised at all seasons, principally in Alapsinh and Jafarsháhí Fiscal Divisions. This crop requires transplanting and constant care, the prepared ground being called *baraj*. The other productions are capsicums, ginger, pepper, onions and garlic.

JUTE forms the great commercial staple of Maimansinh. The cultivation is largely carried on throughout nearly the whole District, but particularly in the rich alluvial tracts formed by the Brahmaputra in the south-eastern tract between Ghafargáon and Bhairab Bázár in the north of Dacca District. The river has here silted up a great deal of late years, and the alluvial accretions (*chars*) thus formed, are found to be exceedingly favourable to the growth of jute.

In February 1873, a special commission was issued by the Bengal Government to inquire into the cultivation and preparation of Jute. It consisted of a European gentleman from a mercantile house in Calcutta, and a native Deputy Magistrate and Collector. The former unfortunately died while the inquiry was in course of progress, and the work was completed by Bábu Hem Chandar Kar, the other member of the Commission. An able and exhaustive report by that gentleman has recently been published by the Government of Bengal. From it I condense the following paragraphs regarding the cultivation and preparation of jute, with special reference to Maimansinh District; using as far as possible his own words.

The jute of commerce, locally termed *koshtá* or *pát* by the natives, is the product of two different species of plant, both belonging to the natural order *Tiliaceæ*. This order embraces several genera, the

bark of which yields fibre; but of these, the genus *corchorus* is the most remarkable as including six different species of valuable fibre-producing plants. These are (1.) *corchorus capsularis*. (2.) *corchorus olitorius*. (3.) *corchorus fuscus*. (4.) *corchorus fascicularis*. (5.) *corchorus trilocularis*, and (6.) *corchorus decemangularis*. The two species first named are the only ones which yield the true jute, the others not being ordinarily cultivated for their fibre.

The *corchorus capsularis* is an annual plant, growing from five to ten feet high, with a cylindrical stalk as thick as a man's finger, and seldom branching except near the top. The leaves, which are of a light green colour, are about four or five inches long by one inch and a-half broad towards the base, but taper upwards into a long sharp point with edges cut into saw-like teeth; the two teeth next the stalk being prolonged into bristle-like points. The flowers are small and of a whitish-yellow colour, coming out in clusters of two or three together opposite the leaves. The seed-pods are short and globular, rough and wrinkled. It is thus described in Major Drury's "Useful Plants of India":—"Annual, 5-10 feet: calyx deeply 5-cleft: petals 5: leaves alternate, oblong accuminate, serrated, two lower serratures terminating in narrow filaments: peduncles short: flowers whitish-yellow in clusters opposite the leaves: capsules globose, truncated, wrinkled and muricated, 5-celled: seeds few in each cell, without transverse partitions: in addition to the 5-partite cells there are other 5 alternating, smaller and empty." The second species, the *corchorus olitorius*, is very similar to the last in general appearance, shape of leaves, colour of flower, and habits of growth; but it differs entirely in the formation of the seed-pod, which is elongated, almost cylindrical, and about the thickness of a quill. Major Drury thus describes the plant—"Annual, 5-6 feet, erect; leaves alternate, ovate-accuminated, serrated, the two lower serratures terminated by a slender filament; peduncles, 1-2 flowered; calyx 5-sepalled; petals 5, capsules nearly cylindrical, 10-ribbed, 5-celled, 5-valved; seeds numerous, with nearly perfect transverse septa; flowers small, yellow." Each of these species has a white and a reddish variety. The stalks and leaves of the first variety are of a light green colour; while in the second, the stalks are red and the leaves red veined. Both varieties of the plant are cultivated in Maimansinh.

In so wide and diversified a country as Bengal, it is to be expected that the physical character of the land on which jute is grown,

should vary considerably in different parts. High lands, low lands, recent alluvial formations or *chars*, dry lands, humid lands, all are more or less cultivated with jute. Generally, however, such lands may be classed under the heads of—1*st*, *Soná*, high land, which is usually reserved for the cultivation of fruit trees, pulses, vegetables, tobacco, sugar-cane, and the *áus* rice; and, 2*nd*, *Sáli*, or low land on which the *áman*, or winter rice crop is grown. In Maimansinh, the jute crop is generally cultivated on land near the husbandman's house sufficiently high to be out of reach of inundation. In the south-eastern part of the District, however, along the banks of the Brahmaputra, it is grown on the low lying river accretions. Laterite and gravelly soil are not favourable to the growth of the plant, and in Bánkurá, Bírbhúm, and portions of Bardwán and Midnapur where the soil largely consists of laterite, jute is very scantily cultivated.

As regards climate, all information tends to show that a hot damp atmosphere is most favourable to the growth of the plant. Too much rain at the beginning of the season and early floods, are equally destructive to the young plants, and injurious to the prospects of the the crop. Except in low situations, the seed is never sown until after a shower of rain to help germination. Alternate rain and sunshine are found to be most congenial to the jute plant, but excessive rain after the plant has attained a height of two or three feet will not prove materially injurious so long as no water lodges at the roots. The water when so lodged does not kill the plant, for in the Bákarganj and Faridpur Districts jute grows even in waist-deep water; but it promotes the growth of suckers, which makes the fibre what is technically called "rooty." Frequent light showers at first, and heavier rains afterwards, with the gradual rise of the rivers and a fair amount of sunshine, constitute the weather most favourable to the healthy growth of the plant. Jute suffers less injury from excessive rainfall than from the almost entire absence of it. Drought always stunts the growth of the plant, and if protracted very often entirely destroys it. Inundations do not destroy the plant so long as it is not submerged, and there is sufficient sunshine to afford the necessary warmth.

The period for sowing, and the manner in which the land is prepared for jute cultivation vary in different Districts, and sometimes even in different parts of the same District. In Maimansinh, jute is called either *áus* or *áman*, according to the description of soil in which it is sown. The *áus* jute is sown earlier than the *áman*.

Sowings are generally made in the month of April or May, after the cold weather crops have been reaped, and the field repeatedly ploughed. As a rule the preparation of the soil is first commenced in the case of the low lands, *chars*, *bils*, &c., where there is considerable risk of water rising high very early; and deferred to a later period in that of high lands, where no such apprehension need be entertained. The number of ploughings required is entirely dependent on the nature of the soil; a clayey hard soil requiring a greater number of ploughings than a light, sandy, or loamy one. Under any circumstance the land should be so ploughed as to render the soil finely pulverised, and to expose every part of it to the sun. Little attention seems to be paid by cultivators to the selection of good seed. In Maimansinh, a portion of the field is set aside for seed without reference to the quality of the plants, so that healthy and ill-grown plants alike contribute seed for the ensuing season's cultivation. As a rule, seed is not bought and sold, but raised from the plant by the cultivator himself; in cases where it is sold, the ordinary price is about 2 rs. a *maund*, or 5s. 5d. a cwt.; although in very brisk years, the price rises to 8 rs. or 10 rs. a *maund*, or from £1, 1s. 10d to £1, 7s. 3d. a cwt. The ordinary quantity of seed used is about 1½ *seer* per *bighá*, or 8 lb. per acre. The seed is sown broadcast on a clear, sunny day, and covered over with a thin crust of earth, either by the hand or by a harrow. Germination takes place three or four days after sowing, when the field is harrowed or weeded, or subjected to both processes. Overcrowding a field checks the full development of the plant, and for this reason the crop is occasionally thinned by the removal of the more backward plants. Ordinarily, the space left between the plants is six inches, but in some places the plants are left more widely apart.

The crop is reaped from about the middle of August to the middle of October. The best time for cutting is thought to be when the plant is in flower, and just before the appearance of the pods, when the fibre is of very superior quality. But about this time the cultivator's attention is taken up by other crops, and the majority of husbandmen are not in a condition to incur the necessary outlay for hired labour to gather in the jute. The plants are, therefore, often allowed to run to seed before being cut. On the other hand, it sometimes happens that to avoid an impending inundation, or from a wish to be early in the market, the cultivator pulls up or cuts the plant even before it has flowered. The fibre from plants which have not flowered, is

weak ; while that from plants in seed is harsh and wanting in gloss, although heavier and stronger than the fibre of the flowering plant. Whenever practicable, however, the plant is cut, either when flowering or when the flowering is just completed. In some places, after the crop has been cut, it is stacked in the field and exposed to the action of the dew and sunshine, till the leaves, which if steeped along with the stalks are said to discolour the fibre, have dropped off. In other localities, the leaves are thought to add to the weight of the stalks and to make them sink readily, and are not removed. Stacking is not generally practised in Maimansinh District, and the stalks when cut are made up into bundles, and thrown at once into water for the purpose of being steeped.

Stagnant water appears to be generally preferred for steeping the stalks in, as it expedites the process of fermentation, by reason of its containing a large proportion of decomposing vegetable matter. There is also great risk of the bundles being swept away by a sudden flood if steeped in a stream, and there is danger of the fibre being impregnated with the sand which is always carried in suspension by river currents. In steeping the stalks, they are covered with a layer of refuse tops of the jute plants, or with clods of earth, plantain tree trunks, logs of the date tree, or sometimes with straw smeared with mud. This is done partly with a view to protect the upper parts of the bundles from the action of the sun, partly to keep the stalks sufficiently below the surface of the water, and because it is believed to hasten the process of rotting. In some places the bundles are at first sunk by the root end, which is harder, leaving the upper end exposed above the water, and then after ten or twelve days the upper end is pressed down to the same level with the root ends, so that the whole length of the stalks may rot uniformly. While the bundles are under water they are examined from time to time to ascertain how far the rotting has progressed. When rotted to such a degree that the fibre peels off easily, the bundles are taken out of the water, and the fibre either picked away from the stem, or separated by beating in the water. After the fibre has been extracted it is washed, and all impurities removed or picked out. The fibre is usually washed in the same water in which the stalks have been steeped. But the cleaner the water and the more frequent the washings, the silkier and whiter is the fibre. Whenever readily to be found, therefore, running water is preferred for this process.

The Collector estimates the out-turn of jute in Maimansinh from

one *bighá* of land, or a third of an acre, to be from eight to nine *maunds*, or from $5\frac{3}{4}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$ hundred-weights, worth from 1/8 rs. to 2 rs. a *maund*, or from 4s. 1d. to 5s. 5d. a hundred-weight. The value of a good crop of jute, therefore, would be about 14 rs. per *bighá* or £4, 4s. 0d. an acre.

These prices, moreover, were the ones ruling in 1873, and are much lower than those for previous years. The cost of cultivation is thus returned:—rent of land, 1/4 rs. a *bighá* or 7s. 6d. an acre; seed, $1\frac{1}{4}$ annás a *bighá*, or 6d. an acre; ploughing, harrowing, &c., 3/2 rs. per *bighá*, or 18s. 9d. an acre; weeding, 1/2 rs. per *bighá*, or 6s. 9d. an acre; cutting, 1 rs. per *bighá*, or 6s. an acre; steeping, picking, and tying up, 2/11 rs. a *bighá*, or 16s. an acre. Total cost, about 9/6 rs. a *bighá* or £2, 16s. an acre. The estimate does not represent the actual outlay incurred by the cultivator, but rather the cost which would be incurred if hired labour were employed. This, however, is very seldom the case, the entire labour of cultivation and preparation being carried on by the husbandman and his family. In the jute growing tracts, cultivators frequently form themselves into associations on the principle of mutual co-operation, and undertake by turn the cultivation of the field, or the preparation of the fibre, for the aggregate guild. This practice is known as *gántá* in Pabná and the Districts near Calcutta; and as *hámúr, jogul*, or *hámúrullá* in Maimansinh. In this District, the owner sometimes also lets out his jute land in *bhág*, *i.e.*, in consideration of a half share of the produce from the lessee of the land.

It has long been a disputed point as to whether jute is or is not an exhausting crop for the soil, and the information received by the commission from the various District officers in different parts of the country, exhibits a wide diversity of evidence on this point. On the whole, however, the generally received opinion is that jute is an exhausting crop, and the Jute Commissioner shares in this view. He states in his report:—"I have no hesitation in saying that jute exhausts and impoverishes the soil to a much greater extent than the other crops. In the absence of a sufficient series of chemical analyses of jute soils under different conditions, before and after the raising of a jute crop, I am unable to say what are the particular constituents of the soil which it abstracts; but that it does abstract some of its constituents very largely is evident, from the necessity which agriculturists find themselves under of re-invigorating their fields with manure and fresh earth collected from drains and other places where vegetable and animal decomposition have deposited a rich layer of

mould, or leaving them fallow for a time, or by a rotation of crops, the crops selected being such as are known by experience not to require the same soil as the jute. In the case of *chars*, *bils*, and low lands, this artificial re-invigoration is not required, as the silt deposited by the overflow of rivers, the washings of the high lands brought down by rain water and deposited on low ground, and the enormous mass of vegetation which rots in *bils*, effect by natural processes what the agriculturist on high lands has to accomplish by his own labour; but the necessity of supplying to the soil those constituents which the jute plant abstracts exists everywhere. Nor are the adverse opinions quoted above really opposed to this deduction; for it may be that in those places where the soil appears not to be exhausted, the rainfall and drainage are such as to obviate the necessity of artificial manure; or the soil there may be so rich in those particular constituents which promote the growth of the jute plant, that a succession of crops does not appreciably exhaust it; nay, it may adapt the soil for the better growth of other crops. Positive answers on these questions must, however, await extensive chemical analyses and experiments. As to the degree to which soil is exhausted by the cultivation of jute, I am disposed to think that ordinarily even virgin land, which has been broken up for a first crop of jute, will, in the second year, lose about 25 per cent. of its productive power; and that, even though afterwards manured, the yield in the third year will be about one half of the first year's crop. It is from this conviction of the exhausting power of jute on the soil that this crop is so frequently shifted from field to field; and I can testify from my own observation and inquiries that, except in the case of *chars* flooded annually, and very low lands which derive similar benefits by drainage, it is in a very few instances only that jute is grown on the same land for more than three years consecutively."

This exhaustion, where not remedied by inundation is met by (1.) the application of manure; (2.) rotation of crops; and (3.) allowing the land to remain fallow. The manure ordinarily used consists of cow-dung, ashes, and mud from neighbouring banks or swamps. The leaves of the plant are considered a good fertilizer, and are usually allowed to remain on the fields to rot. A rotation of crops is rarely resorted to in the case of jute lands in Maimansinh District, but such lands are generally left fallow every third or fourth year.

Drought is the most important of the natural calamities to which

the jute crop is liable; but the plants are subject to other accidents of a serious character. In the central and eastern Districts, entire fields of jute are sometimes destroyed by a kind of hairy caterpillar called *shúápoká*, which generally comes in seasons of drought and eats up the leaves and bark of the jute plants. The insect is known by various names in different Districts; those by which it is most commonly described being the *bichá* and *áinchá*. Another equally destructive insect is the cricket called *uchingrá* which burrows in the ground and either uproots the seedlings altogether, or destroys them by cutting through the roots. During protracted droughts in Maimansinh, the plants from want of moisture are visited by a blight called *káchurí* which warps and twists the leaves and stops the growth of the plant.

A question has been raised as to the effects of jute-steeping from a sanitary point of view, owing to the rotting of the plant in the water. A considerable diversity of opinion exists as to whether the practice is really prejudicial to health. Dr M'Donnell, who has long resided in the great jute-growing District of Sirájganj, inclines to the negative view. "I do not agree," he says, "that jute-steeping is in any respect unhealthy, or that it breeds any disease. It is certainly offensive to the smell; but so is the water in which the indigo plant is steeped, and the refuse of the indigo plant, but they are well-known to be otherwise than unhealthy. The drinking of the water would no doubt be injurious, but from June to September, when the process is carried on, the people can easily obtain other water."

It has been repeatedly alleged that of late years jute has deteriorated in quality, and that there has been a reckless selection of lands for jute cultivation. On this point too, a conflict of opinion exists among the different District officers. There is little doubt, that in proportion to the increase of the cultivation, the quantity of medium and inferior jute raised has been greater, season after season. When the demand is brisk and the prices high, people find a ready market for whatever they can produce, and naturally become careless; whereas a glutted market leads to the rejection of inferior articles, and consequently cultivators are driven to the necessity of care in improving the quality of their goods. This was well illustrated in the Calcutta market in 1872-73, when the demand fell greatly below the supply, and such demand as did exist was chiefly for fibre of the best quality; the lower varieties

being saleable only at a very cheap rate. The cultivator is generally careful in selecting the land whereon to grow jute; but a careful selection of land is not alone sufficient to secure a supply of good fibre. It is on the timely harvesting of the crop, the sufficient steeping of the stalks, and the careful dressing of the fibre, that the superior quality of the produce in a great measure depends; and it is of not less importance that the rainfall while the crop is on the ground should not only be sufficient but seasonable.

The high prices of 1871-72, threw the cultivator off his guard; and forgetting his habitual caution, he extended the area of his cultivation beyond the limits of his working power. Just at the time, too, when the jute had to be harvested and steeped, he was busy both in reaping his crops of *áus* rice and *kháon*, as well as in preparing to sow the *áman* paddy. His attention being thus divided, the jute crop was neglected; for even the cultivator who could afford to pay for hired labour, found it difficult to procure it, especially in a season when labour is most constantly and largely in requisition, and when the labouring population was also to a great extent crippled by the sickness then so widely prevalent. The result was a crop of inferior quality.

There are, however, many causes for the deterioration of jute, irrespective of want of care on the part of the cultivators. Even after taking every precaution, the husbandman finds himself helpless if the rainfall happen to be insufficient or unseasonable. In 1872 this was the difficulty with which he had to contend. Lower Bengal suffered from a deficiency of rain in every month of that year, and with an extended area under jute cultivation, a large portion of the fibre necessarily turned out of medium and inferior quality. Again, excessive rain, by driving the agriculturist to reap his crop before it is mature, leads to its deterioration. The plants on low lands being in imminent danger of death by submersion, the alternative is either to lose the entire crop, or by cutting early to secure a crop of inferior quality. The husbandmen naturally preferred the latter course. With a large area of cultivation spread over a very wide tract of country, on lands of very dissimilar character, and under very different circumstances, the result in 1872-73 was the influx of a large quantity of inferior jute into the market. There is nothing, however, to show that there has been any deterioration in the character of the jute plant itself, or a permanent falling off in the quality of its fibre.

The direction in which improvements may be easily and most

beneficially effected in the cultivation and preparation of jute, are (1.) the selection of seed, (2.) rotation of crops, and allowing jute land to remain fallow, and (3.) care and attention in the season of reaping and in the subsequent manipulation of the fibre. With regard to the first point, an exchange of seeds between different Districts might be tried with an almost certain improvement in the quality of the fibre. Moreover, as jute is generally conceded to be an exhausting crop, although some of the District officers maintain the contrary, no high lands should be planted with jute oftener than once in two or even three years. That the productive powers of jute land have been generally over-taxed, is inferred from the fact that of late more inferior fibre has been brought to the market than formerly, much of which must have been grown on exhausted soil. There is considerable difficulty, however, in carrying out a system of regular fallows at stated periods. The cultivator cannot always afford to pay rent for fallow lands, and the prospect of recouping two or three years' rent by the sale of one year's good crop is subject to so many contingencies, natural, commercial, and domestic, that few like to accept it. There is besides at present a great demand for arable land for a variety of crops, and few can afford to forego present opportunity for a future contingency. A third direction in which improvement might be effected, is with regard to the time of cutting the plant. The Superintendent of one of the largest Jute mills in the neighbourhood of Calcutta, writes as follows with reference to this point:—"Too much importance cannot be placed upon the fact, that the cutting of the jute at the proper time in a great measure determines its quality. If cut when the plant has just reached its full growth and the flowers begin to appear, the fibre will be strong, soft, and free from hard root which is so objectionable; on the other hand, if allowed to stand until decay has set in, the fibre will be hard and of a brown colour, and no amount of care in the steeping will remedy this. No proper tanks are provided for steeping in; any small hole or ditch by the road side is used. For a time these do well enough, but quantity after quantity is steeped in the same water, till it gets so dirty that the fibre steeped in it becomes discoloured and weak." The employment of machinery for the separation of fibre cheaply and effectually is very desirable, and it might be worth the while of Government to offer premiums for machines for the purpose. The primary conditions which such a machine would have to fulfil are—*1st.*, That it must be cheap enough to be within the reach of the bulk of the cultivators; *2nd.*,

it must be so easily worked that husbandmen of ordinary intelligence should be able to use it; and *3rd.*, it must be so simple in construction, that any village smith should be able to put it in order when required. The great desideratum is cheapness. Unless the cost of such a machine be so low as to bring it within the reach of ordinary cultivators themselves, it would effect little; as paid factory labour in large establishments would not be able to compete with the private enterprise of cultivators who devote their leisure hours to the manipulation of the plant.

Any improvements or changes imply a greater outlay of labour and capital than is now devoted to the work, and this will scarcely be risked so long as the cultivator does not find that the price of his produce is regulated by its quality alone; that the best quality commands the highest price; and that inferior fibre proves the least remunerative to him. Something may be done by diffusing information as to what alterations and changes in the present modes of cultivation and of manufacture are likely to improve the quality of jute, but the only thing which will really lead to the general adoption of improved methods of cultivation and manipulation is profit. Meanwhile he naturally clings to a process which, without any appreciable strain on his resource of capital and labour, now brings him such large returns. This cannot be better illustrated than by reference to the extension of the jute trade, and I quote the following *in extenso* from the Commissioners' Report:—

"Jute has been grown in India from about or even before the time of the Mahábhárata; and doubtless a considerable quantity of the fibre was produced in the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries both for home consumption, and for gunnies for the packing of articles for exportation; probably also for the manufacture of cordage. But the raw material was not exported. Trial shipments of the fibre were made at the close of the last century, and although these were very favourably noticed and laid the foundation for a lucrative foreign trade, no systematic or material aid was given by Government, and the exports languished from that time to the close of the third decade of this century. In 1828-29 the total exports of jute amounted to only 364 cwt., valued at £62, 2s. From this year, the trade in the fibre seems to have gone on rising very steadily. At the close of the first five years from that date the exports rose to 25,333 cwt. In the next five years the average was 67,483. The next quinquennial

average was nearly double that of the preceding one (117,047 cwt.), and it doubled again in 1843-44 to 1847-48 (234,055 cwt.) This steady increase in the production of the fibre was effected solely by the energy of the cultivators, without any extraneous aid whatever. They found the occupation profitable, and engaged in it with alacrity, devoting their own land, time and capital to a cultivation which they understood thoroughly, and which always brought them a fair return. The fibre was gradually better and better known by the manufacturers in England, and as the demand rose, so did the supply. The superior quality of Russian flax, and its moderate price at the time was, however, a serious impediment to the extension of the jute trade, even if it had been, which it certainly was not, well known to manufacturers. Few would seek the jute fibre in distant India who could get the superior Russian flax at about the same price so much nearer home. The Russian war of 1854-55 upset this state of things. The importation of flax was stopped, and English manufacturers were driven to the necessity of finding a substitute, and jute at this juncture appeared the most promising. It was nearly as good as flax in quality; it was cheaper, and it was grown in a dependency of the British Crown, where it could be cultivated to any extent desirable. The stocks in the market were bought up at high prices, and the demand for the fibre in Bengal was brisk. The cultivator perceived his opportunity, and seized it of his own accord, without any prompting or aid worth the name. He kept up the supply to the full extent of the demand, and the average of export rose from 969,724 cwt. in 1858-59 to 1862-63, to 2,628,110 cwt. in 1863-64 to 1867-68, or nearly three-fold more than that of the preceding five years, or over eight times more than the supply of the year before the breaking out of the Russian war. The total value of these exports was £6,129,593. The last quinquennial average was 4,858,162 cwt., valued at £3,010,022. During the period from 1828-29 to 1872-73, the jute trade has risen from 364 cwt., valued at £62, 2s. in 1828-29 to 7,255,689 cwt., valued at £4,234,962 in 1872-73. It is usual with some to descant on the apathy, ignorance, and want of enterprise of the people of this country generally, and of the cultivators in particular; but the figures here given prove beyond the shadow of a cavil that they are, notwithstanding their real and alleged defects, sufficiently long-headed thoroughly to understand their interests, and capable of creating and extending an industry in five and forty years to the value of nearly four and a quarter millions pounds sterling, without any aid

whatever from without. That they are capable, likewise, of sustaining this trade and extending it, if required and made worth their while, none will, I feel certain, venture to question. As long as the trade will be profitable they will do all that is needed; but strong common sense and long-headedness will not accept theories for facts, nor adopt new methods and systems because they are new, or because they are told to adopt them. The new methods and systems must be proved to be real improvements, calculated for certain to add to their profits, or they will have none of them. To illustrate this subject further, I may here also advert to a fact which is of much moment. The high prices and heavy demands for jute in 1871-72 were quite sufficient to induce the cultivator in the following year, to increase the area of his cultivation by about 30 per cent. over that of the preceding year; but his customers failed to respond to his enterprise. The purchasers fell back, the prices fell, and the market was glutted; as a necessary consequence the grower was a heavy loser, and he at once reduced the area of his cultivation from about 925,899 acres in 1872 to nearly 517,107 acres in 1873. In short, the best and only incentive to the extension of the jute trade is, as in all other cases, profit; and as long as European manufacturers will keep it up by a steady demand at remunerative prices, so long there will be regular improvements, both in the quality and quantity of the supply; but sudden and heavy falls in prices will tell seriously against both."

The rapid extension of the jute trade of late years has materially improved the condition of the agricultural classes. The Collector of Maimansinh states as follows:—"In an economic point of view, jute has been an immense boon to the inhabitants of the District. It has enabled them to utilise lands which were previously of little value, and it has poured in a supply of silver till the great bulk of the people are decidedly raised above a condition of poverty. At the same time, I am not of opinion that the production of cereals has been diminished to any appreciable extent, if indeed it has been diminished at all. I am sensible of the difficulty of applying abstract rules of political economy to the state of things around us in India; but the following points may be noticed as bearing on this part of the question:—*1st*, the price of rice has not risen in the last four years; *2nd*, even if the price of rice had risen somewhat, this would have been sufficiently accounted for by the rise of price which would naturally follow the influx of silver rising from the sale of jute; *3rd*,

as, in spite of this, rice has not risen, it follows that rice cultivation must have been extended and not diminished; *4th*, it is impossible, however, to say what quantity of the silver which has flowed in has passed into circulation, as, of course, only silver in circulation can affect prices, and the quantity of silver hoarded in this District is very considerable. But apart from considerations of this kind, I can state with tolerable confidence, from my knowledge of the District and my experience as a settlement officer, that the production of cereals is not diminishing. It is seldom that the cultivator is tempted to sow jute upon lands which ought to be devoted to rice, as he has generally the command of lands of inferior quality, which are nevertheless very well adapted for jute."

As a rule jute is cultivated by the peasantry only with a view to supplementing their regular cultivation of rice and seeds. Very few, if any, devote themselves to it exclusively, and as the preliminary outlay on the crop is small, the labour, seed, and manure being the cultivator's own, there is not much demand for advances in order to enable the husbandman to go on with the cultivation. In some places, however, the system of advances has arisen, and it is prevalent in Maimansinh, Rangpur and Goálpárá. These advances are made and received under various conditions. In some places, the *mahájan* or village merchant makes the advance on the express understanding that he is to be repaid in jute to be delivered at the market rate of the day, and that he is also to be paid a commission of $1\frac{1}{4}$ *seers* or $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of jute for each rupee advanced, as interest. In other places the entire produce of the field or fields is made over to the *mahájan*, who deducts the amount of his advance and interest from the proceeds of the sale of the jute. In and about Jamálpur in Maimansinh District, a cultivator under advance has to give to his *mahájan* 5 *seers* or 10 lbs. out of every *maund* (82 lbs.) sold by him, to cover the charge for interest on the loan; and in some instances, in addition to the 5 *seers* of jute, 2 *pice*, or three farthings per *maund*, in money is also levied by way of direct interest. In the Kisorĺganj sub-division of Maimansinh the *mahájan* who has made the advance generally takes repayment in jute at the rate of four *ánnás* or sixpence per *maund* less than the market rate; if the stipulated quantity is not delivered in the same season, the deficiency has to be made good the following year.

Where jute is not grown under advances, the cultivator takes the raw produce of his crop in bundles, to the nearest *hát* or village

market, or to the large marts, according to local circumstances; and there sells it to petty traders, known at different places under the names of *páikárs*, *phariás*, or *bepáris*, who convey the produce to the central towns, and dispose of it to the *mahájans*, or merchants of greater pretension. The petty traders also go about with money from homestead to homestead, buying up parcels of the fibre, which they either dispose of on their own account, or make over to the *mahájans* from whom they may have received advances. These itinerant traders, known in the eastern Districts where they have to travel in boats, as *bhásániá bepáris*, and elsewhere as *phariás*, are to be met with in every District where jute is largely grown, and almost everywhere appear as middlemen between the jute-grower and the merchant. In Rangpur jute sometimes passes from the cultivator direct to the *mahájans* themselves, who send it to Calcutta. It is disposed of to *bepáris* from Sirájganj, who go up in boats, occasionally with salt, but oftener with cash, either bartering for, or buying up, the jute according to the grower's choice. These *bepáris* are generally allowed a half share in the profits of the venture by the Sirájganj *mahájans*, who sell the jute at that mart to native or European merchants for shipment to Calcutta. In Dacca, when the cultivator owns a boat, he himself goes with his produce direct to the *mahájans*, chiefly at Náráinganj. Sometimes two or more cultivators club together and hire a boat jointly to carry their produce to market. But the *páikár* or *phariá* prevails everywhere.

The great jute mart in Bengal is Sirájganj in Pabná District. The District officer thus describes the manner in which jute transactions are conducted at Sirájganj, and the same description applies, *mutatis mutandis*, to the other large rural centres of the trade:—"The hanks are brought by boat or on men's heads to the nearest market or *hát*, one of which is to be found within a few miles of every village. There it is sold to *bepáris*, or petty dealers. The *bepáris* never make advances for jute to the cultivators, but always pay in ready money for what they buy. . . . The jute is next put into boats of from fifty to a hundred and fifty *maunds* burden, and is conveyed by the *bepáris* to the exporting marts—Sirájganj, Ráiganj, Pángásí, Chandrakoná, Ulápárá and Sháhzádpur. There the fibre is sold to the *mahájan*, the merchant who remains stationary in one place and buys jute brought to him, either as a speculation, or for a commission of 5 per cent. In Sirájganj the *bepárí* deals with the *mahájans* through the agency of a broker, called a *dálál*. Sales are conducted in a floating bázár

on the river, where all classes of traders, European as well as native, are to be seen daily between 8 and 11 A.M., passing backwards and forwards in light boats, called *dálálí dingís*, amidst an incessant clamour of tongues. More than half the *mahájans* are *Márwáris* (called *Káyás*), and their gay dress and the rapid movement of their boats give an animated appearance to the scene. There is the greatest noise and confusion on every side, but the real business is transacted without a word. The *dálál* tells the *mahájan* what is the number of *maunds* of jute in his client's boat, and where it comes from; he offers a sample, and then they put their hands together under a cloth. Offers and demands are indicated by tracing the Bengali figures expressing the rate per *maund* on the palm of the person concerned, no one else being able to know what amount is to be given or received. If the parties come to terms, a little jute from the sample is delivered by way of a sign that the bargain is complete. This trade language of signs is also used at Náráinganj and probably in most Indian marts. It may have been introduced by the *dálás* in order to cheat the *bepárís*. These country traders are liable to be deceived as to the price agreed upon, and always seem to play a very ridiculous part, sitting in a corner of the boat while strangers dispose of their property by secret signals. The bargain made in the broker's boat is seldom adhered to. When the *bepárí* brings his jute to the *mahájan*, he is told, generally with great truth, that it is not of as good quality as the sample, and the price has to be settled over again. If the market has risen, the seller claims the benefit." In case of a dispute regarding the quality of the article bargained for, a reduction is the usual course; and if this cannot be adjusted by the parties concerned, arbitration is resorted to. The price is generally paid on the twentieth day after purchase.

The great bulk brought down to Calcutta is usually conveyed by water; Maimansinh jute not often being despatched to Calcutta direct, but generally to the large marts of Sirájganj or Náráinganj. Occasionally it is forwarded direct to Calcutta in charge of the *mánjhí* or head man of the boat, who has been known to dispose of the jute on his own account and to return to the *mahájan* with a false tale of wreck and total loss of cargo. The cost of boat hire to Calcutta direct from Maimansinh varies from £3, 10s. to £5 (35-50 rs.), per 100 *maunds* (between 3 and 4 tons), the higher rates being charged in November and December when the rural population is engaged in harvesting the winter rice crop.

It may be well here to describe the system of trade followed when the jute reaches Calcutta. "When a consignment of jute arrives in Calcutta by rail, it is carted away to the store house of the consignee, generally an *áratdár*, or commission agent, who sells it at his own discretion, charging store rent at the rate of 1 *pice* or 1½ farthings, and commission at the rate of 1 *ánná* or 1½d. for every *maund* sold. The rent is usually charged for the total period the goods are stored, without reckoning the exact time, or making any difference for the occupation of the store-house for a long period in cases where the sale is delayed. If a consignment is coming by country boats, the consignee sends out men called *khálgastís* who go beyond the toll-house, board the boats consigned to the firm, and discharge the prescribed tolls which are subsequently recovered from the consignor. When the jute is sold from the boats in which it is brought, without being landed, a commission of only 1 *ánná* or 1½d. on each *maund* sold, is charged by the consignee. But if the consignment has to be kept in the *árat*, or store-house, 1 *pice* or 1½ farthings more per *maund*, is charged on account of rent, as in the case of jute brought by rail.

"The *áratdár* or commission agent to whom the consignment is made, acts as the seller's broker. The produce is, however, disposed of through the intervention of a regular broker acting on behalf of the intending buyer. The European exporting firms are the principal buyers. Occasionally, but rarely, when the market is very low, and the consignee is particularly anxious to close his account, the *áratdár* himself becomes the purchaser. When the fibre is approved of, and the terms are settled between the commission agent and the broker, a *jáchandár*, or examiner of the quality of the fibre, is called in to examine the consignment in the buyer's interest, and to fix the quantity to be given over and above per *maund*, in case the fibre be found wet or inferior to sample.

"Sometimes, even before the bargain is settled, or the disposal of the consignment has been arranged for, the *áratdár*, if applied to, advances to the consignee nearly the whole amount of the market value of the consignment, charging interest at 12 per cent. per annum. If the sale-proceeds exceed the amount of the advance and charges, the surplus is remitted to the seller, who, on the other hand, is required to refund the difference if the sale-proceeds fall short of the consignee's claims. Sometimes the *áratdárs* advance money to the petty traders in the jute-growing Districts, charging interest at

12 per cent. per annum on the sum advanced, on the understanding that they will send all they can collect to the *árats* making the advances. The debt is discharged out of the price realised by the sale of the jute they bring down to Calcutta. Sometimes a trader under advance sells his investment at a different *árat*, or agency house; but in such a case no difference is made in the rate of interest, nor any claim urged for damages. The usual precaution taken is to seize the boat as it arrives at the toll-*ghát* through the *khálgastís*, and recusancy on the part of the consigners, or of their supercargoes, leads to quarrels and appeals to the police: but this is not common."

I have mentioned that jute is prepared from two species of plants. No appreciable difference is reported in the quality of their respective produce. In commerce, however, marked distinctions are noticed in the productions of different places. These have led to a variety of specific names being applied to jute, of which the following are the most common :—(1) *Uttariyá*, (2) *Deswál*, (3) *Desí*, (4) *Deorá*, (5) *Náráinganji*, (6) *Bákrábádi*, (7) *Bhátiál*, (8.) *Karímganji*, (9) *Mirganji*, and (10) *Jangipuri*.

(1.) *Uttariyá*, the market name for the best variety of jute. It is called *uttariyá* or northern jute, because it comes from the Districts to the north of Sirájganj, *viz.*, Rangpur, Goálpárá, Bograh, parts of Maimansinh, Kuch Behar, and Jalpáiguri. This jute recommends itself to the trade by its possessing to the greatest extent those properties which are essentially necessary in fibres intended for spinning, namely length, colour, and strength. It sometimes, however, fails in toughness, and is never equal to the *desí* and *deswál* descriptions in softness. A superior quality of this jute is produced by the Hájang and Koch people in the hills north of Maimansinh. It comes into the market as late as November.

(2.) *Deswál.* Next in commercial value is the *deswál* jute, which commands a steady and good price on account of its fineness, softness, bright colour, and strength. It is stated, however, to have deteriorated to a certain extent within the last few years, from the inefficient system of drainage in the new fields where it is grown. The fibre has become shorter and more rooty, and also weaker. Its name implies that it is the native jute of Sirájganj and its neighbourhood. The varieties grown in *bils* or marshes are called *bilán;* those raised on *chars* are commercially known by the name of *charuá*. In Calcutta both sorts pass under the generic name of *deswál*. It first comes into the market about the latter end of July or the beginning of August.

(3.) *Desí* jute is the produce of Húglí, Bardwán, Jessor, and the 24 Parganás. It is of a long, fine, and soft fibre.

(4.) *Deorá.* This quality of jute comes from Farídpur and Bákarganj. Its name is taken from a village in Faridpur, which was formerly a large mart. The village has now dwindled into insignificance, but all the jute produced in Farídpur and in the neighbouring District of Bákarganj is known by its name. The fibre of this class is strong, coarse, black, and rooty, and much overspread with runners. It is largely used in the manufacture of rope and cordage, and would rise in value if the dealers would refrain from pouring water on the prepared fibre in order to increase its weight. Occasionally small parcels of this jute are met with of a very superior quality.

(5.) *Náráinganji* jute, called after the mart which is the centre of the trade, is mostly the produce of Dacca. It is well-suited for spinning, being strong, soft, and long. But from some neglect in steeping, the fibre by the time it reaches Calcutta, loses its original colour and turns a brownish tint, which detracts from its value.

(6.) *Bákrábádi* jute is the finest description of the fibre raised in Dacca District on the *chars* of the river Meghná. It excels particularly in colour and softness.

(7.) *Bhátiál* jute is also grown in Dacca and comes to Calcutta from Náráinganj. It is grown on river *chars*, and takes its name from the fact that it grows in the *bháti* or tidal country. It is a very coarse but strong fibre, and in demand in the British market for the manufacture of rope.

(8.) *Karimganji* jute grown in Maimansinh District, is an unusually long fibre, very strong and of good colour, partaking to some extent of the nature of the Náráinginj or Dacca jute.

(9.) *Mírganji* jute is the produce of Rangpur District, which although long, is generally of only medium quality.

(10.) *Jangipuri.* The produce of a portion of Pabná District goes by the name of Jangipuri, after the village of that name. It is of short fibre, weak, and bad for spinning.

The fluctuation in the price of jute during the past few years, has been remarkable. At Sirájganj market, superior jute which in 1871 sold at 5 rs. a *maund*, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight, did not in 1872 realise more than from 3/10 rs. to 3/14 rs. a *maund*, or from 9s. 11d. to 10s. 7d. a hundredweight. In 1873 the prices of the different descriptions of jute at the same mart were as follows:—Best *uttariyá*, 3/4 rs., 3/6 rs., 3/8 rs., and 3/10 rs. per *maund*, or from 8s. 10d. to 9s. 11d. a hundredweight. Medium *uttariyá*, 2/12 rs. to 3/2 rs. a

maund, or from 7s. 6d. to 8s. 6d. a hundredweight. Inferior *uttariyá*, 1/10 rs. to 2/2 rs. a *maund*, or from 4s. 5d. to 5s. 9d. a hundredweight. Best *charuá*, 2/6 rs. to 2/8 rs. a *maund*, or from 6s. 6d. to 6s. 10d. a hundredweight. Medium and inferior *charuá*, 1/14 rs. to 2/4 rs. a *maund*, or from 5s. 1d. to 6s. 2d. a hundredweight. *Deswál*, 1/10 rs. to 2/2 rs. a *maund*, or from 4s. 5d. to 5s. 9d. a hundredweight.

At Náráinganj market in Dacca, jute sold in 1872 up to a maximum of 4/12 rs. a *maund*, or 13s. a hundredweight. In 1873 the highest prices realized ranged from 2/8 rs. to 2/12 rs. a *maund*, or from 6s. 10d. to 7s. 6d. a hundredweight. Inferior kinds sold in 1873 as low as 1 r. to 1/2 rs. per *maund*, or from 2s. 8d. to 3s. 1d. a hundredweight.

The prices at the Mádárípur mart in Bákarganj District, the seat of the *deorá* jute trade, varied in the early part of 1872 from 2/2 rs. to 2/4 rs. per *maund*, or from 5s. 9d. to 6s. 2d. per hundredweight. In 1873 prices are said to have fallen so low as from 12 to 14 *ánnás* per *maund*, or from 2s. to 2s. 4d. a hundredweight.

In the Calcutta market, the prices of the different descriptions of fibre in 1872 and 1873, are returned as under:—

	1872.		1873.	
	Per *Maund*.	Per Cwt.	Per *Maund*.	Per Cwt.
	Rupees.	*s.* *d.* *s.* *d.*	Rupees.	*s.* *d.* *s.* *d.*
Uttariyá, . .	4 to 6/4	10 11 to 17 1	2/8 to 4	6 10 to 10 11
Deswál, . .	3/8 to 4	9 6 ,, 10 11	1/14 to 3	5 1 ,, 8 2
Desí, . . .	3 to 3/12	8 2 ,, 10 3	2 to 2/8	5 5 ,, 6 10
Deorá, . . .	2 to 3	5 5 ,, 8 2	1/2 to 1/8	3 1 ,, 4 1
Náráinganji, .	3 to 4/8	8 2 ,, 12 3	2 to 3/8	5 5 ,, 9 6
Bákrábádi, .	3 to 3/8	8 2 ,, 9 6	1/14 to 2/10	5 1 ,, 7 2
Jangipuri, . .	2/12 to 3/4	7 6 ,, 8 10	2 to 2/8	5 5 ,, 6 10

The average price of jute in Maimansinh District in 1872 was returned at from 1/8 rs. to 2 rs. a *maund*, or from 4s. 1d. to 5s. 5d. a hundredweight.

Although the present depressed prices (1873-74) have thrown a gloom over the prospects of jute cultivation, the future of the trade is nevertheless promising. The Jute Commissioner in his Report, thus sums up the future prospects of jute cultivation :— "Taking only the present jute-growing tracts into consideration, the prospect of the cultivation in time to come may be regarded as most hopeful. The sixteen Districts which include the bulk of these tracts,

comprise a total area of 22,498,477 acres of arable land, out of which only 876,324 acres were devoted to jute in 1872 according to the District reports,—probably an inadequate estimate. Leaving any excess out of consideration, as its extent cannot be ascertained, and arguing on the figures at command, were the demand for jute to double in course of the next ten years, it would only take up about one-thirteenth of the arable area, leaving the remaining twelve-thirteenths for cereals and other crops. This estimate does not include the reclaimable waste lands in the Districts under notice. Their extent is vast; and as they are being rapidly brought under the plough, in reality jute will not trench upon the present fields for the food-crops to the extent shown above. Again, there are several Districts where jute is not as yet grown to any large extent, but which have taken to its culture, and are gradually extending their area, and these will in a great measure supplement the present sources of supply. Moreover, during the time the reclaimed lands will take in occupying the place of those fields which will be alienated from the food-crops by jute, those Districts which cannot grow jute can easily raise additional food-crops, which will in the usual course of trade feed the jute-growers, whose earnings by jute would be most welcome to them. Doubtless in a country governed by custom all changes are repugnant, and a transition state of agriculture and commerce must at first produce some disturbance of the usual order of things; but under the incentive of gain, so predominant in the human breast in every part of the world, which is of all others best able to ride rough-shod over custom, matters will settle into their new course without any appreciable inconvenience."

The following are the principal of the jute marts in Maimansinh District. (1.) *Sadr* or Head Quarters Sub-division—Nasírábád, Sambhuganj, Bairá, Datta Bázár, and Khairád. (2.) Kisoríganj Sub-division—Karímganj, Bhairab Bázár and Katiádí. (3.) Jamálpur Sub-division—Jamálpur, Baushi Bángáli, Nalitá Bárí, and Sherpur. (4.) Atiá Sub-division—Siálkul, Subankháli, and Nagarpur.

AREA OF DISTRICT, OUT-TURN OF CROPS, &C.—A slight discrepancy exists in the various returns as to the area of the District, but the difference is probably due to recent boundary changes. The Boundary Commissioner, in a return dated July 1874, gave the area at 6318 square miles. The Census Report takes the area at 6293 square miles. The Collector of the District reported in 1871 the estimated area to be 6464 square miles, and the same

figures are given by the Board of Revenue, and also by the late Collector, Mr Reynolds, in his Report on the District in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division." Of this latter area of 4,136,960 acres or 6464 square miles, the Collector estimates that 2,279,680 acres, or 3562 square miles are actually under cultivation; 820,480 acres, or 1282 square miles uncultivated but capable of being brought under tillage; and 1,036,800 acres or 1620 square miles as under jungle and uncultivable. The proportion of cultivable to uncultivable land given above differs from that stated in the Statistics, &c., of Dacca, and in the compiled Statistics of the Board of Revenue, but the returns agree in other respects. Of the total under cultivation in 1870, 97 per cent. or 2,221,180 acres were estimated to be under rice, and the remainder to be cultivated with pulses, indigo, jute, &c. In round figures, therefore, two-thirds of the entire District are either actually under cultivation, or capable of being brought under tillage, while the remaining one-third is waste and uncultivable. The outturn of paddy per acre varies considerably. In the northern portion, land paying a rental of 1/8 rs. a *bighá*, or 9s. per acre yields an outturn of from 5 to 6 *maunds* per *bighá*, or from 11 to 13 hundredweights per acre. In the western tracts the yield is somewhat less, while in the south of the District, land paying the same rent yields about 10 *maunds* of paddy per *bighá*, or 22 hundredweights per acre. There is no land in the southern part of the District which pays a higher rent than 1/8 rs. per *bighá*, or 9s. per acre, but in the western and northern portions there is a considerable extent of valuable land which pays a rental of 3 rs. per *bighá*, or 18s. an acre, and from these highly priced fields, an outturn of unhusked rice is obtained, varying from 8 to 12 *maunds* per *bighá*, or from 17½ to 26 hundredweights per acre. The price of the paddy grown on both sorts of land is about from 12 *ánnás* to 1 r. per *maund*, or from 2s. to 2s. 8d. a hundredweight. The land paying a rental of 1/8 rs. a *bighá*, or 9s. an acre, which is principally in the northern, western, and south-western portions of the District, in addition to the outturn of rice, yields a second crop of 1½ *maunds* per *bighá*, or a little over 3 hundredweights per acre of til seed, pulses, peas, &c., the value of the former being about 8s. 2d. and the two latter 6s. 10d. a hundredweight. Land of the richer sort, which pays a rental of 3 rs. per *bighá*, or 18s. an acre, produces a second crop of the same description, but the outturn is double in quantity. Mustard seed is also grown as a second crop on both descriptions of land, and yields

an outturn of from 1 to 2 *maunds* per *bighá*, or from 2 to 4 hundredweights an acre, worth from 3 rs. to 3/12 rs. a *maund*, or from 8s. 2d. to 10s. 3d. a hundredweight. In the south and south-east parts of the District, a second crop is not generally grown. Upon the whole, a fair outturn from lands valued at 1/8 rs. a *bighá*, or 9s. an acre, would be a crop of both descriptions of the weight of about 6½ *maunds* per *bighá*, or say 14 hundredweights per acre, worth about 9 rs. per *bighá*, or £2, 14s. an acre; and from the richer lands paying 3 rs. per *bighá*, or 18s. an acre rent, a double crop of about twelve *maunds* a *bighá*, or 26 hundredweights an acre is a fair average, and is worth about 17 rs. a *bigha*, or £5, 2s. an acre. It will be seen from the above that between one-fifth and one-sixth of the total value of produce is generally paid as rent, the remainder going to the cultivator for his capital and labour. This estimate does not include jute-growing lands.

SIZE OF CULTIVATORS' HOLDINGS.—Taking a fair average for the whole District, the Collector is of opinion that a farm of 60 *bighás*, or 20 acres would be considered a large holding for a peasant. A fair sized comfortable holding is from 15 to 20 *bighás*, or 5 to 7 acres. A single pair of oxen is able to plough about 5 acres of land, or perhaps a little, but not much more. The peasantry, as a class, are not in debt. Generally speaking, the lands are held by tenants at will, but in the south-east of the District, there are many tenants who hold their lands with a Right of Occupancy under Act x. of 1859. The Collector estimates that the number of cultivators who possess occupancy rights, is about one-sixteenth of the whole agricultural community, except in the south-east where the proportion is about three-eighths. The pressure of the population on the land is still light enough to allow of the husbandman's prosperity.

THE DOMESTIC ANIMALS of Maimansinh are oxen, buffaloes, sheep, goats, horses, pigs, dogs, cats, &c. Oxen and buffaloes are the only animals used in agriculture. The animals reared for food, or as articles of trade, are sheep, goats, horses, buffaloes, oxen, pigs, fowls, pigeons, ducks, &c. The value of an average cow is reported to be about 12 rs., or £1, 4s., and that of an average pair of oxen about 30 rs., or £3. A pair of buffaloes cost from 40 to 50 rs., or £4 to £5; a score of sheep about 25 rs., or £2, 10s.; a score of kids, six months old, 20 rs., or £2; and a score of pigs from 50 to 60 rs., or £5 to £6.

THE AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS are of a very rude and simple description, and consist of the following articles:—(1.) a *kodáli*, or spade for digging the earth before ploughing; (2.) *nángal*, or plough; (3.) *joál*, or yoke; (4.) *cháng*, used in levelling the ground after ploughing; (5.) *bidá*, or harrow, formed of pieces of timber or bamboo, sometimes crossing each other, and set with either iron or wooden teeth. The last is drawn over the ploughed fields to level and break the clods, to cover the seed when it is sown, and to thin the plants when they have grown a few inches. (6.) *Mugur*, a wooden mallet to break the clods; (7.) *káchí*, or sickle; (8.) *hát nángaliá*, or hoe for weeding. The cattle and implements requisite to cultivate a "plough" of land, equal to about fifteen *bighás*, or five English acres, are a pair of oxen, a plough, yoke, spade, harrow, and weeder, the total cost of which would represent a capital of about 35 rs., or £3, 10s.

WAGES AND PRICES.—The rates of wages have considerably increased of late years, and at the present day range from fifty to seventy per cent. higher than fifteen years ago. In towns the price of labour is about one-third greater than agricultural wages in the rural tracts. The rate for labourers varies according to the season of the year, and the late Collector, Mr Reynolds, in his Report, states that unskilled labour can sometimes be obtained for 5 rs., or 10s. per month; but at harvest, or when agricultural operations are active, as much as 6 rs., or 6/8 rs., or from 12s. to 13s. a month would have to be paid. If the labourers are engaged only for a month, a fortnight's pay is usually taken in advance, and a month's pay if the engagement is for a longer period. Labourers can be obtained in considerable numbers at most of the principal bázárs. Agricultural day labourers usually receive 6 rs., or 12s. a month; smiths 7 to 10 rs., or from 14s. to £1; bricklayers and carpenters 10 rs., or £1 a month. For a cart and two bullocks, with a driver, the rate of hire is about 14 *ánnás*, or 1s. 9d. a day, but it is difficult to obtain carts in large numbers. The rates for boat hire are fixed according to tonnage and number of the crew. In 1867 the usual market rates were as follow:—for a boat of 100 *maunds*, or four tons burden, 25 rs., or £2, 10s. per month; one of 500 *maunds*, or seventeen tons, 70 rs., or £7 per month; and one of 1000 *maunds*, or thirty-four tons, 135 rs., or £13, 10s. per month. In 1871 the price of grain was as follows:—best cleaned rice from 2 rs. to 2/8 rs. and 3 rs. a *maund*, or from 5s. 5d. to 6s. 10d. and 8s. 2d. a hundredweight, varying

in the different localities in which it is grown; common rice varies from 1/8 rs. to 1/12 rs. per *maund*, or 4s. 1d. to 4s. 9d. a hundredweight; best quality unhusked rice 1/8 rs. a *maund*, or 4s. 1d. a hundredweight; common ditto, from 12 *ánnás* to 14 *ánnás* a *maund*, or from 2s. to 2s. 4d. a hundredweight; shelled barley, 3 rs. a *maund*, or 8s. 2d. a hundredweight; wheat, from 4 rs. to 5 rs. a *maund*, or from 10s. 11d. to 13s. 8d. a hundredweight; Indian corn, only grown in small quantities, 4 rs. a *maund*, or 10s. 11d. a hundredweight; indigo, from 200 rs. to 300 rs. a *maund*, or £27 to £40 a hundredweight; sugar cane, 1 r. a *maund*, or 2s. 8d. a hundredweight. The price of rice in 1866 was exceptionally high, although the famine did not directly affect the District. In September 1866 the price of cleaned rice in ordinary use rose to 4/4 rs. a *maund*, or 11s. 7d. a hundredweight, which was the highest point reached during the year. The average price throughout the year was 3 rs. a *maund*, or 8s. 2d. a hundredweight. In 1867 the price of other articles of produce, as reported by Mr Reynolds in page 280 of "The History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," was as follows:—Pulses, 2/10 rs. a *maund*, or 7s. 2d. a hundredweight; wheaten flour, 6/8 rs. a *maund*, or 17s. 9d. a hundredweight; cocoa-nut oil, from 22 rs. to 24 rs. per *maund*, or from £3, to £3, 5s. 6d. a hundredweight; jute, from 2/8 rs. to 4 rs. per *maund*, or from 6s. 10d. to 10s. 11d. a hundredweight; as stated on a previous page, the price of jute in 1873 had fallen to from 1/8 rs. to 2 rs. per *maund*. Cotton (in small quantities), 25 rs. per *maund*, or £3, 8s. 3d. per hundredweight; mustard oil, 11/8 rs. a *maund*, or £1, 11s. 4d. a hundredweight; tobacco, 7/8 rs. a *maund*, or £1 per hundredweight; molasses (*gur*), 10 rs. per *maund*, or £1, 7s. 4d. per hundredweight; linseed, 3/8 rs. a *maund*, or 9s. 6d. a hundredweight; mustard seed, 3 rs. per *maund*, or 8s. 2d. a hundredweight; clarified butter, 30 rs. to 35 rs. per *maund*, or from £4, 2s. to £4, 15s. 8d. a hundredweight; gram, 2/8 rs. to 3 rs. per *maund*, or from 6s. 10d. to 8s. 2d. a hundredweight; coarse sugar, from 10 rs. to 12 rs. per *maund*, or £1, 7s. 4d. to £1, 12s. 9d. a hundredweight; betel-nuts, 8 rs. per *maund*, or £1, 1s. 10d. a hundredweight; hides, 20 rs., or £2 per score; rice liquor, used by the lower classes, 8 ánnás, or 1s. a quart. No records exist in the Collector's office showing the former prices of grain or other articles of produce, but it is known that prices have greatly risen throughout the District during the last 20 years.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The local standards and measures of weight are extremely perplexing; nearly every Fiscal Division has its

own standard, and its own method of sub-dividing the *maund* (*man*). The following statement of the different local standards and measures will illustrate this:—(1.) In the Fiscal Divisions of Maimansinh, Ráidám, Báokhand, and Sinhdhá, rice, oil, clarified butter, jute, and tobacco are sold by the *seer* (*ser*) of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás*, equal to 2 lbs. 2 oz. $13\frac{1}{14}$ drs. avoirdupois. Other articles are sold by the *seer* of 60 *tolás* = 1 lb. 8 oz. 11 drs. The *maund* is thus sub-divided, and taking the basis of calculation to be the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás*, the following are the English equivalents for the various sub-divisions:—5 *seer* = 1 *káthá* = 10 lbs. 14 oz. $1\frac{5}{14}$ drs.; 4 *káthá* = 1 *bhutá* = 43 lbs. 8 oz. $5\frac{3}{7}$ drs; 2 *bhutá* = 1 *maund* = 87 lbs. 0 oz. 10 drs.; 2 *maunds* = 1 *árhá* = 167 lbs. 1 oz. $5\frac{4}{7}$ drs. In the cases where the *seer* of 60 *tolás* is adopted, the weights of the component parts of the *maund* is proportionately less. The standard *seer* is one of 80 *tolás* equal to 2 lbs. 0 oz. $14\frac{3}{5}$ drs. avoirdupois. (2.) In Husainsháhí Fiscal Division, rice, jute, and tobacco are sold by the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás* = 2 lbs. 2 oz. $13\frac{1}{14}$ drs. Other articles are sold, some by the *seer* of 80 *tolás* = 2 lbs. 0 oz. 14_5 drs., and some by that of 60 *tolás* = 1 lb. 8 oz. 11 drs. (3.) In Joár Husainpur Fiscal Division the standard *seer* is the same as in Husainsháhí, except that the *maund* is differently divided, as follows:—10 *seer* = 1 *árhí* = 21 lbs. 12 oz. $2\frac{4}{7}$ drs.; 2 *árhí* = 1 *káthá* = 43 lbs. 8 oz. $5\frac{3}{7}$ drs.; 2 *káthá* = 1 *maund* = 87 lbs. 0 oz. 10^6 drs. The English equivalents are calculated on the basis of the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás*. Where the smaller *seer* is used the weight of the *maund* and its different sub-divisions is proportionately less. (4.) In Kágmárí Fiscal Division pulses and mustard are sold by the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás*, and rice and other articles by the smaller *seer* of 60 *tolás*. The sub-divisions of the *maund* are:—$2\frac{1}{2}$ *seers* = 1 *choán*; 16 *choán* = 1 *maund*. (5.) In Jafarsháhí and Mukimábád Fiscal Divisions, grain and jute are sold by the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás*, and other articles by the *seer* of 60 *tolás*. The component parts of this standard are:—5 *seers* = 1 *choán*; 8 *choán* = 1 *maund*. (6.) In Ságardí Fiscal Division articles are sold in the same manner as in Jafarsháhí, but the *maund* is sub-divided in the same manner as in the Fiscal Division of Maimansinh. (7.) In Pukhariá Fiscal Division articles are sold as in Jafarsháhí, and the *maund* is thus sub-divided:—10 *seers* = 1 *dhámá*; 4 *dhámá* = 1 *maund*. (8.) In Barbáju and Tulandar Fiscal Divisions articles are sold as in Jafarsháhí, the *maund* being sub-divided as follows:—10 *seers* = 1 *káthá*; 4 *káthá* = 1 *maund*.

(9.) In Sherpur Fiscal Division grain is sold by the *seer* of 82½ *tolás* = 2 lbs. 1 oz. 15$\frac{1}{12}$ drs., and other articles by the *seer* of 60 *tolás;* the *maund* is thus sub-divided:—5 *seer* = 1 *dhárá;* 8 *dhárá* = 1 *maund.* (10.) In Susang Fiscal Division clarified butter is sold by the *seer* of 90 *tolás* = 2 lbs. 5 oz. 0$\frac{9}{12}$ drs., other articles are sold as in Maimansinh, and the component parts of the *maund* are the same as in that Fiscal Division. (11.) In Atiá Fiscal Division all articles are sold by the *seer* of 82 *tolás* 10 *ánnás,* the *maund* being sub-divided as in Sherpur. (12.) In Nasírujiál clarified butter is sold by the *seer* of 90 *tolás;* rice by the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás,* and other articles, some by the *seer* of 80 *tolás,* and some by that of 60. The *maund* is sub-divided as in Maimansinh Fiscal Division. (13.) In Kháliájurí Fiscal Division clarified butter and oil are sold by the *seer* of 90 *tolás,* and other articles, some by the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás,* and some by that of 80. The sub-divisions of the *maund* are the same as in Maimansinh. (14.) In Tappá Hazrádí, rice, oil, and *ghi* are sold by the *seer* of 84 *tolás* 10 *ánnás,* and other articles by that of 60 *tolás,* The weights are as follow:—7 *seer* = 1 *káthá;* 4 *káthá* = 1 *árhí;* 4 *árhí* = 1 *árhá;* 16 *árhá* = 1 *purá.* (15.) In Juánsháhí articles are sold as in Tappá Hazrádí, but the weights are different, as follows: 4 *seer* = 1 *purá;* 4 *purá* = 1 *káthá;* 20 *káthá* = 1 *bis.* (16.) In Ranbháwál all articles are sold by the *seer* of 82 *tolás.* The measures of time are the same throughout the District, as follows:—1 *danda* = 24 minutes; 7½ *danda* = 1 *prahar* = 3 hours; 8 *prahar* = 1 day and night of 24 hours. Measures of quantity are:—4 *kauri* = 1 *gandá;* 5 *gandá* = 1 *burí;* 4 *burí* = 1 *pan;* 16 *pan* = 1 *káhan.*

LAND MEASURES.—The local land measures are as numerous and perplexing as the weights, and vary greatly in different parts of the country. (1.) In Alapsinh and Tappá Ranbháwál the local standard is the *purá,* equal to 1·034 acres. The sub-divisions of the *purá* are:—4 *kauri* = 1 *gandá,* 5 *gandá* = 1 *kathá;* 16 *kathá* = 1 *purá.* (2.) In Barbáju, Kágmárí, Atiá, and Pukhariá Fiscal Divisions, land is measured by the *khádá,* which is equal to 5 acres 1 rood, 3 poles. The minor sub-divisions of the *khádá* are as follows:—4 *kauri* = 1 *gandá,* 7½ *gandá* = 1 *páki,* 16 *páki* = 1 *khádá.* (3.) In Maimansinh, Sinhdhá, Darzibáju, Ráidám, Susang, Husainsháhí, Nasírujiál, Kháliájurí, and Báokhand Fiscal Divisions, the standard measure is as follows:—16 *káthá* = 1 *árhá,* 16 *árhá* = 1 *purá* = 25 acres 3 roods 12 poles. (4.) In Tappá Hazrádí, Kásipur, Nawábád, Bárikándí, Joár Husainpur, Tappa Kurikhái

Tulandar, Balrámpur, and Idghar Fiscal Divisions, land is measured by the *dron*, equal to 5 acres 2 roods 12 poles, English. (5.) In Niklí, Juánsháhí, and Latífpúr, the standard is the *kání*, and 16 *kání* make 1 *dron*, but the size of the *dron* is very different to that in use in Hazrádí, and is equal to 16 acres 3 roods 1 pole, English measure. (6.) In Sherpur and Ságardí, the standard land measure is the *kur*, which is thus obtained :—20 *gandá* = 1 *káṭhá*, 20 *káthá* = 1 *kúr* = 1 acre 0 rood 25 poles, English. (7.) In Jafarsháhí and Mukimábád land is measured by the *páki* and *khádá* as in Barbáju Fiscal Division, but the standard is much larger, the *khádá* being equal to 7 acres 2 roods 25 poles. Upon the subject of these perplexing diversities in the land measures, Mr Reynolds, in his Report on the District published in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division" (p. 230), states that it would be a great convenience to have the confusing and anomalous land measures swept away, and one general standard of land measurement introduced; but adds that so long as the legislation on the subject is merely permissive, it does not appear likely that the people will be prevailed upon to abandon their old usages. It may also be noticed that an era prevails in the Fiscal Division of Susang different from that in ordinary use throughout the rest of the District. The year commences with the month of Aswin (September—October) instead of with that of Baisákh (April—May), and the reckoning is a year and a half in advance of the ordinary Bengal era.

Landless Day Labourers.—There is no tendency towards the growth of a distinct class of day labourers who neither possess nor rent any land in the District, but in harvest time a class of labourers termed *krisháns* come from Dacca and Faridpur in large numbers. These men are paid in kind, and usually leave the District as soon as the harvesting is over. Women and children are employed in field work, but not largely.

Varieties of Land Tenure. The following account of the different varieties of land tenure in Maimansinh is compiled from a report drawn up by Bábu Guru Charan Chakrabartti, Sub-Deputy Collector, dated 29th August 1873, and forwarded to me by the Government of Bengal. These tenures are divided into four classes, viz., (1.) estates paying revenue direct to Government; (2.) Government estates acquired by purchase or forfeiture from the original owners; (3.) under tenures; and (4.) rent free estates or tenures.

Estates Paying Revenue Direct to Government.—(1.) At

the time of the Permanent Settlement in 1793, the number of separate *zamíndáris* in Maimansinh District, was returned at 17. These were settled in 41 shares, of which, up to August 1873, 5 had been removed to other Districts, owing to transfers and alterations of boundaries. The remaining 36 shares have since increased to 109, to which four more have been added by transfer from other Districts, making a total of 113. Generally speaking, an entire *parganá*, or an aliquot part thereof, is termed a *zamíndárí* paying revenue direct to Government. Large divisions of a *parganá* separated from it before, or at the time of the Decennial Settlement, are termed either *ioár*, *táppá*, or *taráf*. They are held independently of the main portion, forming the *zámíndárí* or parent estate. The largest *zamíndáris* are those of Alapsinh, Maimansinh, Atiá, Pukhariá, Kágmárí, Susang and Husainsháhí. (2.) Independent *táluks*. The minor portions of a *parganá*, or portions of its other sub-divisions named above, are called *táluks*. They were created by the *zamíndárs* who used to receive the rents from them prior to the Decennial Settlement. At the time of that Settlement these *táluks* were separated from the parent *zamíndáris* and formed into independent estates paying revenue direct to Government. The rights and interests of the owners of these independent *táluks* are in every way the same as those of the *zamíndárs*. The number of such *táluks* on the District roll at the time of the Decennial Settlement was 2,600. It has now (1873) increased to 5,909. Classified according to rental, these *táluks* are returned as under:—Paying a Government revenue of £100 a year and upwards, 28; paying between £10 and £100 a year, 632; paying between £5 and £10 a year, 594; paying between £1 and £5 a year, 2113; paying less than £1 a year, 2542.

GOVERNMENT ESTATES.—These estates consist of lands bought in by Government at sales for arrears of revenue, or of newly formed alluvial lands, or lands which have been escheated or resumed. In 1873 there was 37 of these estates in Maimansinh District, classified as follows:—paying £100 a year, and upwards, 1; paying between £10 and £100, a year, 15; paying between £5 and £10 a year, 8; paying between £1 and £5 a year, 9; paying less than £1 a year, 4. When estates fall into the hands of Government, the first opportunity is usually taken of disposing of the proprietary rights in them to private individuals by settlement or sale. The grantees and purchasers are placed upon the same footing as the *zamíndárs* and independent *tálukdárs*.

UNDER TENURES.—Nineteen different classes of under-tenures are met with in Maimansinh, from the dependent *táluk* held immediately under the *zamíndár* or superior landlord, down to the holding of an ordinary *rayat* or tenant at will. It seems that most of these tenures existed from the time of the Decennial Settlement, and some of them long before. The feudal system, which under the Muhammadan Government prevailed in Upper India for centuries together, also found its way to Maimansinh. Favourite or successful servants of the Nawáb frequently obtained the grant of a *zamíndárí* or a *táluk*. Again, a feudatory chief divided his estate among his friends, relatives, or retainers, who in like manner divided their lands among others. In time poverty, or the creditors of the owner of a *parganá*, or of several villages, induced him to part with one or more villages of his estate, either absolutely or conditionally. It is to these conditional transfers of the old *zamíndáris* that the *patní*, *shikmí*, *maurúsí*, *mirásh ijárá* tenures, &c. chiefly owe their origin. The different varieties of these tenures are as follow:—

(1.) *Patní táluk*. The nature of *patní táluks* is fully described in Regulation VIII. of 1819. They were first created on the estates of the Maháráját of Bardwán, and in time spread over the whole of Bengal. The marked difference between a *patní* and other *shikmí* or dependent tenures, is observable in the procedure laid down for the recovery of arrears of rent due to the superior landord. A detailed account of this tenure will be found in my Statistical Account of Bardwán, in which District the *patní* system is best exemplified.

(2.) *Dar-patní táluk*. When a *patnídár* lets his estate in part or in its entirety, he is said to have created a *dar-patní*. The *dar-patnídár* enjoys all the rights and immunities of the *patnídár*, so far as concerns the sub-tenure held from him. The *patnídár* pays rent to the *zamíndár* or *tálukdár* to whose estate the *patní* appertains. So also the *dar-patnídár* pays rent to his landlord the *patnídár*; but he is not legally liable for any rent to the *zámíndár* or *tálukdár*. The sale of the parent estate for arrears of Government revenue frees it of all its previous encumbrances in *patní* and *dar-patní*. Even a *pátnídar* is not entitled to any indemnification when he pays the Government revenue to save the parent estate from running into arrear. By a proviso in the lease a *patní* or a *dar-patní* is occasionally rendered voidable should the tenant neglect to do some specified act.

(3.) *Shikmí táluk.* The term *shikmí* or dependent *táluk* is used in contradistinction to *Khárijá* or independent *táluk* as described in the first class of tenures. It is a general name for a class of under-tenures which vary more or less in their nature or right and interest, and are held under the *zamíndár* or *tálukdár.* The conditions on which the lease is granted make the rent of the tenure either fixed or variable. In different parts of the District different names are given to *shikmí* tenures of the same class. In some places *shikmí táluks* are known by the name of *pattái* or *pattáo táluk* also.

(4.) *Istimrárí* or *mukarrarí.* An estate of the kind known as *istimrárí* or *mukarrarí* is one which has been held at a fixed rent from the time of the Permanent Settlement. The sale of the parent estate for arrears of Government revenue does not affect this sort of tenure, while the auction purchaser is entitled to make null and void all the similar tenures created subsequent to the Permanent Settlement. The prefix "*káim*" (permanent) is added to *mukarrarí* to make assurance doubly sure. Such *mukarrarí táluks* of this District are sometimes considered to be *ijahárí táluks,* by the proprietor who created them.

(5.) *Maurúsí*; an hereditary tenure held either at a fixed or progressive rate of rent, according to the conditions of the lease.

(6.) *Naganí jamá táluk* is an under-tenure held subject to a light quit rent. In every other respect it is similar to a *maurúsí táluk.* This tenure was created by the ancestors of the present Rájá of Susang, as an inducement to people to settle on their estates.

(7.) *Ijahárí táluk.* An under-tenure is called *ijahárí táluk* when the superior landlord does not chose to admit the *mukarrarí* right of the holder of the *táluk,* while on the other hand, the *tálukdár* asserts his right to hold the land at a fixed rent. Some of the *ijahárí táluks* in Maimansinh date from a period anterior to the Permanent Settlement.

(8.) *Dikhlí táluk.* This tenure is stated to be peculiar to Tappá Hazrádí and Juansháhí Fiscal Divisions. It consists in the sale of a village or a specific quantity of land of either a *khárijá* or independent, or a *shikmí* or dependent *táluk.* By such a sale the right to the land passes absolutely to the purchaser, who has to pay in addition to the purchase money, a fixed rent to the superior landlord, the vendor.

(9.) *Mistákh*; a kind of sub-under-tenure held under a *shikmí tálukdár.*

(10.) *Mirásh*; a tenure in perpetuity of land situated within certain definite boundaries, and obtained from its proprietor on payment of a sum of money down (*salámí*), and with a further engagement to pay a fixed rate of rent to the lessor.

(11.) *Maurúsí ijárá* is an estate farmed in perpetuity and heritable. It is a dependent *táluk* in all respects except in name.

(12.) *Ijárá.* An *ijárá* generally consists of an entire estate, or one or more villages of an estate, farmed out for a term of years. Sometimes market and bázárs are also let in farm. Hardly any of the Maimansinh rich landholders manage their own property, and such lands as are not granted away in under tenures, are almost universally let in farm. The leases are short, seldom exceeding five years. This practice of granting farming leases for short terms, is a great source of litigation, and one of the causes of the comparative backwardness of the District. The farmer has no object in making improvements, and in general he has no capital to do so. His aim is simply to make the most he can out of the farm during the period of his lease.

(13.) *Dáisudhí ijárá.* When a man borrows money, and for the repayment of the debt, lets his land in farm to the lender for a definite period or until the debt contracted is liquidated in full, the lease is called a *dáisudhí ijárá.*

(14.) *Dar-ijárá.* A farmer or *ijárádár* of an estate can also sublet his farm for the period of his lease, the transaction being known by the name of *dar-ijárá.*

(15.) *Katkabálá.* The tenure known by this name consists in the mortgage of an estate by its owner for the repayment of a debt. When possession of the property is given to the mortgagee, with stipulation that he shall enjoy the whole profit in lieu of interest until payment of the principal, it becomes an usufructuary mortgage. Notwithstanding the expressed stipulation as regards the application of the profit to interest only, any sum realized from the usufruct beyond legal interest is deducted from the principal. When possession of the mortgaged property is retained by the mortgagor it amounts to a conditional sale, which is to be absolute or not, as the mortgagor fails to repay or does repay the debt contracted under the mortgage.

(16.) *Chak.* A sort of under-tenure of the *shikmí táluk* class, granted either in perpetuity at a fixed rental, or for a limited period.

(17.) *Jot* is a *rayatí* or cultivating tenure. An ordinary *jot* consists of a few parcels of cultivated land with homestead for the tenant to live in. The tenant is in general the actual cultivator of the land, but in some of the larger *jots* the holder sublets the land.

(18.) *Nij jot* or *Khámár.* In many cases, the *zamíndárs* or superior landholders retain a portion of their estates in their own cultivation as home farms. These lands are called *Nij jot* or *Khámár.*

(19.) *Bargá.* In this tenure, the occupant of the land, generally a *jotdár* or petty *tálukdár* makes over the land to another person on condition of receiving one-half of the crop at harvest-time.

RENT FREE ESTATES.—The District records show that 139 valid *lákhiráj* or revenue free estates exist in the District. Besides these there are numerous other rent-free tenures, which have been granted by the landholders either for the worship of the gods, maintenance of religious persons, or in return for services rendered.

VILLAGE OFFICIALS.—The village officials of the old village communities, have died out in Maimansinh District, except in name. The present village officers are simply the servants of the landholders. They are designated *náib*, *gumáshtá*, *tahsíldár*, *karmachárí*, *patwárí*, *mandal*, *páik*, and *dakrá*, each performing his respective duty; but nowhere in the District do the independent officials of the old village communities appear to be at work, though in many places the ancient names have been retained. The *náib* is the representative or manager of the proprietor of an estate, and the collection of the rents is carried on by other subordinate officials under his supervision.

RATES OF RENT.—The following table showing the prevailing rates of rent paid by cultivators for land growing ordinary crops, is taken from a report by the Collector to the Bengal Government, dated 15th August 1872.

Arable land in Maimansinh District may be roughly divided into (*a*) ordinary village lands, and (*b*) *char* or alluvial lands, and islands formed by the rivers. The difference between the rates for ordinary village lands and for *char*, as indicated in the table, arises from a combination of several causes. It is partly the result of a difference in the soil, the *char* lands being more sandy and containing a less proportion of loam; but it arises also from the fact that *char* lands are for the most part less favourably situated with regard to markets and means of communication; and I have no

doubt that we should also take into account a sense of insecurity as regards the action of the river on *char* lands, which has an effect upon the rental, even in cases in which practically there is little or no danger of diluvion.

PREVAILING RATES OF RENT FOR LAND IN MAIMANSINH DISTRICT.

DESCRIPTION OF LAND.	Maimansinh and Jamálpur Sub-divisions.		Kisoriganj Sub-division.		Atiá Sub-division.	
	Per standard *bighá*.	Per English acre.	Per standard *bighá*.	Per English acre.	Per standard *bighá*.	Per English acre.
	RS. A. RS. A	S. D. S. D.	RS. A. RS. A.	S. D. S. D.	RS. A. RS. A.	S. D. S. D.
1. High land for early or *aus* rice, producing also a cold weather crop of mustard seed or pulses.	0 12 to 1 4	4 6 to 7 6	0 5½ to 0 12	2 0 to 4 6	0 12 to 1 8	4 6 to 9 0
2. *Char* land of the same description as the above.	0 9 to 1 2	3 4½ to 6 9	0 5 to 0 9½	1 10½ to 3 6	0 8 to 1 2	3 0 to 6 9
3. High land producing early rice, but no second crop.	0 6 to 0 10	2 3 to 3 9	0 4 to 0 7½	1 6 to 2 9	0 8 to 1 0	3 0 to 6 0
4. Low lands for late or *áman* rice,	0 10 to 1 2	3 9 to 6 9	0 7 to 0 13½	2 7½ to 5 0	0 12 to 1 8	4 6 to 9 0
5. *Char* lands for *áman* rice,	0 7 to 0 14	2 7½ to 5 3	0 4 to 0 8	1 6 to 3 0	0 7 to 0 14	2 7½ to 5 3
6. High lands producing only a cold weather crop of pulses or oilseed.	0 3 to 0 9	1 1½ to 3 4½	0 3 to 0 7	1 1½ to 2 7½	0 4 to 0 12	1 6 to 4 6
7. *Char* land of the same description as the above.	0 2 to 0 6	0 9 to 2 3	0 2 to 0 6	0 9 to 2 3	0 2 to 0 6	0 9 to 2 3
8. Village lands for jute,	0 10 to 1 2	3 9 to 6 9	0 7 to 0 13½	2 7½ to 5 0	0 12 to 1 8	4 6 to 9 0
9. *Char* lands for jute,	0 7 to 0 14	2 7½ to 5 3	0 4 to 0 8	1 6 to 3 0	0 7 to 0 14	2 7½ to 5 3
10. Sugar-cane land,	1 12 to 3 8	10 6 to 21 0	1 8 to 3 0	9 0 to 18 0	1 12 to 3 8	10 6 to 21 0
11. Village lands for thatching grass,	0 10 to 1 2	3 9 to 6 9	0 5 to 0 8	1 10½ to 3 0	0 10 to 1 2	3 9 to 6 9
12. *Char* lands for thatching grass,	0 7 to 0 14	2 7½ to 5 3	0 3 to 0 6	1 1½ to 2 3	0 7 to 0 14	2 7½ to 5 3
13. Ordinary lands for vegetable gardens,	0 12 to 1 8	4 6 to 9 0	0 8 to 1 4	3 0 to 7 6	0 12 to 1 8	4 6 to 9 0
14. *Char* lands for vegetable gardens,	0 9 to 1 2	3 4½ to 6 9	0 5 to 0 10	1 10½ to 3 9	0 9 to 1 2	3 4½ to 6 9
15. *Pán* gardens,	3 8 to 5 8	21 0 to 33 0	2 4 to 4 0	13 6 to 24 0	3 0 to 5 0	18 0 to 30 0

The Collector, in forwarding the Report, states his belief that these figures in the foregoing table represent as accurately as possible the rates actually paid for arable land in Maimansinh District. They show an increase of from 30 to 50 per cent. on the rates which were common for the same qualities of land prior to the introduction of Act X. of 1859. I have already exhibited the diversities in the local mensuration (p. 446); and as an illustration of the difficulties involved, the Collector in his District Report, published in the "History and Statistics of the Dacca Division," dwells on the inconvenience of the local land measures in estimating the average rates of rent paid for the several qualities of land in different parts of the District. In order to make the comparison, the local measures must be reduced to a uniform standard, and even when this is done, the difficulties in arriving at the truth are very great. The following extract on the subject, taken from Mr Reynold's, the Collector, Report, will illustrate this:—"I am aware that there is a widely-diffused notion that there exist what are called "*parganá* rates," according to which the rental of land is regulated by its situation within this or that fiscal division,

entirely irrespective of the qualities of the land itself. If this theory were a true one, the inquiry would be greatly simplified; for it would be only necessary to ascertain the customary rates of each fiscal division, and on such a question common fame might properly be followed. My own experience, however, has led me to the conclusion that (at least in those Districts of Eastern Bengal with which I am acquainted) these "*parganá* rates" have no existence whatever. I do not of course mean that the rates of rent are not different in different fiscal divisions; but the difference, in my belief, depends altogether upon the quality of the soil and other natural advantages. When lands of similar quality, lying close to the common boundary of two fiscal divisions, are compared together, it will be found that they are assessed at the same average rates. This will often be disguised in Maimansinh by the difference of the local standards; the rate on one side of the boundary may be 5 rs. or 10s. per *puŕá*, and on the other side 2 rs. or 4s. per *káni*, and yet there may be no real difference between the two. Of course, the comparative fertility of soil is not the only element in determining the rate of assessment, though it is the principal one. All natural advantages are to be taken into account; vicinity of roads and other means of communication, healthiness of situation, good water, good markets for produce, &c. I believe that different rates depend entirely on the comparative possession of these and other similar advantages, and that they are not in any way determined by the fact of lands nominally belonging to this or that fiscal division. I should therefore think it an absurdity to say that the rate of homestead lands is so much in Alapsinh and so much in Kágmárí. Lands with the same advantages will bear the same rental in each fiscal division; and to bring the name of the fiscal division into the question at all, seems to me to involve an element of error and confusion, as it implies that all the homestead lands in the same fiscal division possess the same advantages, which is notoriously contrary to the fact. . . . I may add, that I greatly doubt whether it would be possible, even with the most careful enquiries, to ascertain accurately the average rental of land. All the statistics I have ever seen on the subject have omitted to notice one important element of variation—I mean the different tastes and characters of landlords. On one landholder's estate the rents may be nominally high; but it is well known that the area entered in the *zamíndárí* papers is much below the truth, and the cultivator is willing to pay a high rent for 50 *bighás*, as he knows that he will really get 70 *bighás* for his money. The neighbouring landholder

follows a totally different plan. He has his lands accurately measured, and lets them at a low rate. It is clear that any comparison between the average rates of assessment on these two estates would be fallacious; and if the estates were otherwise of similar quality, but situated in different fiscal divisions, they would probably be pointed to as a striking confirmation of the theory of "*parganá* rates." The delusion might last till the first landholder died, and his successor had a new measurement of the lands made, when it would be found that the rents would speedily fall to the level of those in the neighbouring estate. . . . In some parts of the District, as Juánsháhí, it is not the practice to reckon house land according to the area, but at a contract rate in each separate instance. There is no reason, however, for thinking that the result is materially different from what it would be on the more usual system of calculating by the area of the land. The two extremes of the District, as regards fertility of soil and other natural advantages, are Juánsháhí and the northern part of Alapsinh, the former being the least and the latter the most favoured locality. Next to Alapsinh, the lands of Jafarsháhí, and of some parts of Pukhariá, are the most valuable. A custom exists in some places of imposing a double rate upon lands which produce two crops in the year. Not only is this done, but the tenant is entered in the *zamíndárí* accounts as holding twice the area of land which is actually in his possession, the land being reckoned twice over, and a separate rental assessed for each of the two annual crops. This is locally known by the name of *rangwárí jamá*. The only instances of this which I have met with, have been in Husainsháhí fiscal division; but the practice may prevail in other parts of the District also. It is proper to add, that in the cases which have come to my knowledge, the double rental was merely sufficient to raise the assessment to the amount of rent paid elsewhere for similar descriptions of land."

ENHANCEMENT OF RENTS.—Although a considerable enhancement in the rates of rent throughout the District has taken place of late years, the Collector states that in his opinion it would be wrong to attribute it to the working of the Land Law (Act X. of 1859) alone. The general rise in the prices of nearly all articles of consumption has of itself contributed to the increase in the rates of rent. The provisions of Act X. have exercised an important influence in giving the cultivators a defined status only changeable by course of law.

MANURE, IRRIGATION, &C.—Cow-dung manure is used; from 22 to 26 hundredweights being required for an acre of rice and sugar-cane land in the west and south-west of the District; in other parts a smaller

quantity of manure is considered enough. The cost of manuring an acre of rice and sugar-cane land is estimated at about 4s. a year. Irrigation is only used in the cultivation of *boro* rice, for which purpose artificial canals are cut from natural watercourses on to the fields. The Collector estimates the cost at from 4 rs. to 5 rs. per *bighá*, or from £1, 4s. to £1, 10s. per acre per annum. Compared with other District returns, this seems high. Land is rarely left fallow; but occasionally, after a crop has been raised for three or four consecutive years from some poor land, the field is allowed a little rest to recruit itself.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.—Maimansinh suffers occasionally from the ravages of insects, but the damage caused by the blight to the crop is never of serious extent. Floods occur now and then, at intervals of several years, but the damage caused by them is usually slight and transient; and the Collector states that there is no demand for embankments, or other protective works against inundation. The floods, when they do occur, are caused by the rising of the rivers before they enter the District, and not by excessive rainfall within it. Drought sufficient to affect the general prosperity of the District has never occurred within the memory of the present generation. The collector is of opinion, that in some isolated parts of the District irrigation works on a small scale would be beneficial, but that, as a whole, Maimansinh has many natural advantages which render artificial works, such as canals, unnecessary as a protection against drought. In the southern part of the District, there are some elevated and some low-lying tracts which exert compensating influences in the case either of droughts or floods—that is to say, in years of floods the higher levels would have an increased fertility, on the other hand, in seasons of drought, the low marshy lands would in some measure tend to compensate for the loss of crops in the uplands. However, as anything like a general destruction of crops has not occurred within the memory of the present generation, the margin of loss from either of these causes which would need to be supplemented, has not been such as to attract particular attention.

FAMINES.—During the famine of 1866-67 the price of unhusked rice rose as high as 2 rs. per *maund*, or 5s. 5d. a hundredweight, and cleaned rice to 4/4 rs. a *maund*, or 11s. 7d. a hundredweight. Prices of grain have since been greatly reduced from what they were during the famine, but have not returned to what used to be considered their ordinary rates before the famine. The Collector reports that the famine-point would be reached in Maimansinh when paddy or unhusked

rice sold at 4 rs. a *maund*, or 10s. 11d. a hundredweight, and rice at 8 rs. a *maund*, or £1, 1s. 10d. a hundredweight. These, however, seem to me, from the estimates supplied by neighbouring Districts, to represent a degree of scarcity which would have passed the famine point. But in some parts of this District, and particularly towards the south, the people are in the habit of laying up a stock of rice to guard against the contingency of high prices and the failure of the particular harvest. Till this reserve store is exhausted, prices would not reach the above rates. When they did touch those rates the private stock might be held to have been exhausted, and immediate famine would be impending. The principal crop on which the District depends is the *áman* harvest; and although the *áus* is also an important crop, it could not make up for an almost total loss of the first, so as to enable the people to live through the year without actual famine. If the price of paddy were as high as 1/8 rs. a *maund*, or 4s. 1d. a hundredweight, and rice 3 rs. a *maund*, or 8s. 2d. a hundredweight, in January or February, after the gathering in of the winter harvest, the Collector would consider these rates to be a warning of the approach of famine later in the year. At present, the means of communication at the disposal of the District in the cold weather are not sufficient to avert the extremity of famine by importation from other parts of the country; but in the rains the water communication would be sufficient to make up in a large degree for the deficiency of the local crops.

Foreign and Absentee Landlords.—In 1871 there were three European landholders on the rent-roll of the District, besides nine Armenians and Eurasians. The number of Musalmán proprietors is 1171, who pay a total land revenue to Government of £8,760. From about one-eighth to one-sixth of the whole District is owned by absentee landlords.

Roads and Means of Communication.—There are three main lines of roads in Maimansinh, one leading from the head-quarters town of Nasírábád to Tok, on the boundary of Dacca District; a second to the sub-divisional town of Jamálpur in the west; and a third to the town of Subankhálí, in Pukhariá Fiscal Division, also in the west of the District. The first is forty miles in length, and is bridged throughout. The second is thirty-two miles in length, and is intersected by the Banar and Satara rivers, which are unbridged. In the cold and dry seasons these streams are of little depth, and are easily forded; in the rains they are crossed by means of ferries. The only bridge of any magnitude along this road is a wooden bridge at Ashtodhar over the Srísháli river. The third road, that to Suban-

khálí, is forty-four miles in length, and is also intersected by the Banar and Satara rivers, which are unbridged. There is a masonry bridge on this road over the Gujá river at Madhupur, and several wooden bridges. These three lines of road are all unmetalled, but they are in fair order, and passable by wheeled carriages throughout the year. Besides these roads, there is one from Jamálpur to Karaíbárí, in the north-west of the District, thirty miles long, and in fair repair; also a road from Jamálpur to Sherpur, nine miles in length; and one from Jamálpur to Pingná, thirty-two miles in length; all which are only practicable for horse or foot passengers. There are also roads, or rather tracks, from the Brahmaputra to Karímganj, a distance of twenty-five miles; from Sherpur to Piárpur, and from Agarusindur to Bájitpur, sixteen and thirty miles in length respectively. None of these are suited for wheeled traffic. The only other road is a tolerably good one from the town of Nasírábád to Gaurípur; but this is only practicable in the rains for passengers on foot or horseback. On the whole, there are about 146 miles of good roads, and 124 miles of inferior roads or tracks, in the District. None of these are under the supervision of the Public Works Department, but are under the management of the local officers, and maintained by grants from the Amalgamated District Road Fund. During the year 1871 the sum of £1000 was allowed for their maintenance, &c. This the Collector considers to be a very inadequate sum. No large markets have lately sprung up along the lines of road. There are no railways or canals in the District, but a few years ago a proposal was made for opening a canal from Rám Gopálpur to the Brahmaputra river, the landholders of Maimansinh Fiscal Division offering to defray one-half of the cost of the work. It was found, however, that the advantages of this canal would be but questionable, as a sufficient supply of water could not be commanded to maintain it in a navigable condition throughout the year.

MANUFACTURES.—Maimansinh District is not now the seat of any manufacturing industry on a large scale. In former times the muslins of Kisoríganj and Bájitpur were of considerable note, and the East India Company had factories at both these places. The Kisoríganj factory is now the warehouse of a cloth merchant, and a Police Station stands on the site of that at Bájitpur. Muslin, however, is still manufactured in this quarter of the District, though not to any great extent. The fine *sitalpáti* mats are largely manufactured in the eastern and south-eastern tracts, where the marshes furnish an abundant supply of reeds for the purpose. Mustard oil and coarse

sugar is manufactured throughout the District for local consumption. Indigo is manufactured on the estates of Mr Wise and Mr Dunne for the Calcutta market. The description of cheese known as Dacca cheese—and clarified butter are also largely manufactured in the low-lying portions of Juánsháhí and Nasírujiál Fiscal Divisions, where there are considerable tracts of rich pasture for cattle. Charcoal burning is carried on at Barmí on the borders of Dacca, and also at Gábtalí on the outskirts of the Madhupur Forest. Brass and copper culinary and other utensils are manufactured in several parts of the District, both for local use and for export to the large mart at Sirájganj in Pabná and other places. The women of the poorer classes weave a sort of coarse silk cloth, from the produce of silk-worms which they rear themselves; the worms are fed on the leaves of the *bherandá* tree (Argemone Mexicana). On the whole, the social condition of the manufacturing classes is good. With the exception of indigo manufacture, there is no well-marked distinction between capital and labour. All other articles are manufactured by the people on their own account, and in their own houses. No system of advancing money for manufacturing purposes prevails in the District.

The following table shows the number of skilled workmen, mechanics and artizans, under their respective trades, making a total of 32,973 men, or 4·53 per cent. of the total male adult population.

MANUFACTURING CLASS AND ARTIZANS OF MAIMANSINH DISTRICT, 1872.

	Male Adults.		Male Adults.
Bricklayers (*Rájmistrís*),	792	Brought forward, .	16,208
Stone masons, . .	51	Basket-makers, . .	58
Brick-makers, . .	22	Toy makers, . .	146
Sawyers, . . .	154	Bead makers, . .	58
Carpenters, . .	5454	Workers in lacquered ware,	14
Thatchers, . . .	80	Shell carvers, . .	92
Well diggers, . .	17	Cane workers, . .	3
Boat builders, . .	30	Cotton spinners, . .	27
Blacksmiths, . .	1769	Silk weavers, . .	8
Coppersmiths, . .	32	Cotton weavers, . .	14,505
Braziers, . . .	65	Jute weavers, . .	105
Workers in bell-metal,	98	Tailors, . . .	897
Kalaigars, . . .	18	Shoe makers, . .	613
Goldsmiths, . .	2289	Gunnybag makers, .	144
Potters, . . .	4350	Net makers, . .	18
Glass makers, . .	9	Jute spinners, . .	13
Mat makers, . .	802	Bookbinders (*daftrís*),	12
Cabinet-makers, . . .	176	Paper makers, . .	52
Carried over, .	16,208	Total, . . .	32,973

COMMERCE AND TRADE.—The chief articles of import are cotton, betel-nuts, and chilies from Tipperah; cattle from Western Bengal; cocoa-nuts from the southern Districts; and refined sugar, piece goods, wheat, &c., chiefly from Calcutta *via* Náráinganj. The principal exports are rice, jute, indigo, reed mats, hides, brass and copper utensils, cheese, clarified butter, &c. Tobacco and muslins are also exported to a small extent. The following is a list of the more important commercial and trading markets:—(1.) Nasírábád, the chief town and civil station of the District. (2.) Dhápuniá, a large mart for grain. (3.) Sambhuganj, where all descriptions of commodities are bought and sold. (4.) Jamálpur, town. (5.) Sherpur, a large village but now somewhat decayed in importance. (6.) Nalitábárí, the most important mart in the northern part of the District. (7.) Subankhálí, the principal seat of trade in the west of the District. (8.) Husainpur, a large and well-supplied bázár. (9.) Ulákándí or Bhairab Bázár, situated on the Brahmaputra near its junction with the Meghná, the largest and most important mart in the District. (10.) Karímganj, a large bázár. (11.) Katiádí, a large commercial mart, but of less importance than formerly. (12.) Káliácháprá, a market principally for grain. (13.) Kisorganj, the head-quarters of the sub-division of the same name, and a tolerably large market. The District trade is chiefly carried on by means of permanent markets, but also partly by means of fairs. The principal of these is the *Jhulan* fair, held in celebration of the birth of Krishna, at Kisorganj in the month of August, which is frequented by traders from Dacca, Tipperah and Silhet as well as by merchants of the District, at which a considerable traffic is carried on in cloth, piece-goods, hardware, spices, shoes, and miscellaneous articles. The next in importance is the *Dol* or swinging festival held at Husainpur in March; it is not now so largely attended. Fairs are also held at Sherpur and Gobindganj in March and October, and also in Jamálpur, but these are not of much importance, and attract few, if any merchants or traders from other Districts. The Collector is of opinion that, upon the whole, the exports exceed the imports, leaving a yearly balance in favour of the District.

CAPITAL.—No rule of general application prevails regarding the manner in which accumulations of money by the people are employed. The cloth merchants employ their profits as capital in their business, while the grain merchants lend out a considerable portion of theirs at interest. The landed classes in the District as a rule have very little profit to dispose of, and the Collector states that, with the ex-

ception of the Rájá of Susang, he does not know of any proprietor who expends money on the improvement of his land. The usual rate of interest in small transactions when the borrower pawns some article equal in value to the sum borrowed, is twenty-four per cent. per annum; in large transactions when a mortgage is given upon moveable property, the rate is eighteen per cent., and in the same class of transactions with a mortgage upon houses or lands, the rate is twelve per cent. per annum. Petty agricultural advances to the cultivators on personal security are rarely made; but when they are, interest is charged at the rate of twenty-five per cent. per annum, payable in kind. Cases of advances made to the peasants, and secured by a lien upon the crops, are reported as unknown in Maimansinh. Landed estates sell for sums varying from twenty-five to forty years' purchase, but as a rule, thirty years' purchase is looked upon as a high price. There are no large banking establishments in the District, and loans are usually conducted by village shopkeepers, who combine rice-dealing with usury.

The total of the incomes in Maimansinh District over £50 per annum is about £450,000, according to the proceedings under the Income Tax Act of 1870-71. The net amount of income-tax realized in that year with a tax at 3⅛ per cent., was £13,293, 10s. In the following year, 1871-72, with the tax at the rate of 1½¾ per cent. levied on the incomes above £75 per annum, the net income-tax realized amounted to £3,929.

ADMINISTRATIVE.— REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.— Both the revenue and expenditure of the District have steadily increased since the administration passed into British hands. In 1795, the first year for which records exist, the total revenue of Maimansinh District, after making all deductions for transfers and inefficient balances, amounted to £77,160, and the net expenditure on civil administration to £12,028. In 1821-22, the net revenue had increased to £92,908, and the net civil expenditure to £14,521. In 1860-61, or two years after the country passed from the hands of the East India Company into those of the Crown, the total net revenue of Maimansinh amounted to £132,051, and the net civil expenditure to £24,460. In 1870-71, after about twelve years' administration by the Crown, the net revenue had increased to £161,617, and the civil expenditure to no less than £49,574. Between 1795 and 1870, therefore, the net revenue of Maimansinh District increased by 109 per cent., or more than doubled itself; while the civil expenditure has more than quadrupled itself in the same period.

The following balance sheets show the details of revenue and expenditure for the years 1795-96, 1821-22, 1860-61, and 1870-71, respectively. The figures given in the tables for the earlier years must not be taken as absolutely correct, but as only the best I can get. Under the more exact administration which has prevailed of late years, the Statement for 1870-71 may be accepted as accurate. I quote the figures as furnished to me by the Collector, with the exception of those for education, police, jails, post office, and income-tax, which have been taken from the several Departmental Reports:—

No separate return is given of police expenditure in either of the tables 1821-22 or 1860-61. At these periods such Police as existed was under the control of the Magistrate of the District, and the expenditure is probably included under the *diwání*, or criminal charges. I have deducted from the receipt side of these two tables, small amounts under the heading of Civil and Annuity Funds, aggregating £400. This is not a source of revenue, but merely money held in deposit to provide for future annuities and pensions.

BALANCE SHEET OF MAIMANSINH DISTRICT FOR 1795-96.

REVENUE.	£	s.	d.	EXPENDITURE.	£	s.	d.
Land Revenue .	71,999	1	6	*Diwání* charges .	6,186	6	10
Proceeds from sale of Govt. property .	1,050	0	0	Revenue charges .	5,422	16	10
Profit and Loss .	267	7	5	Profit and Loss .	15	9	4
Police . . .	1,132	10	1	Police . . .	94	10	2
Excise . . .	60	1	3	Donations . .	8	13	1
Dacca Mint . .	2,650	7	4	Interest on loan .	248	5	6
				Post Office . .	52	11	6
Total £	77,159	7	7	Total £	12,028	13	3

BALANCE SHEET OF MAIMANSINH DISTRICT FOR 1821-22.

REVENUE.				EXPENDITURE.			
Land Revenue, .	£78,416	14	1	*Diwání* charges,	£6,931	0	0
Nawárá (fleet fund),	283	19	10	Revenue charges,	6,272	4	1
Stamps, . .	4,614	9	9	Stamps, . .	1,235	4	1
Post office, . .	211	12	4	Post Office, .	60	0	0
Police, . . .	619	14	4	Donations, . .	22	19	9
Remittance from the Judge,	939	11	5				
Revenue charges general,	110	19	6				
Excise, . . .	5,131	7	2				
Profit and Loss, . .	2,579	17	5				
Total,	£92,908	5	10	Total.	£14,5217	11	

BALANCE SHEET OF MAIMANSINH DISTRICT FOR 1860-61.

REVENUE.				EXPENDITURE.			
Land Revenue,	£85,319	0	6	Revenue Charges,	£6,149	16	8
Excise,	13,845	19	6	Excise,	256	0	0
Stamps,	23,795	0	0	*Rajinámá*,	422	11	0
Police,	124	16	6	Discount,	748	5	3
Judicial receipts,	1,367	10	8	*Diwání* ,,	7,261	7	6
Criminal, ,,	2,868	4	7	Criminal ,,	5,431	10	1
Revenue, ,,	121	17	5	Pensions,	17	10	0
Law,	139	11	7	Law charges,	218	6	4
Post Office,	537	8	10	Post Office,	327	7	7
Schooling fees and Subscriptions,	899	3	9	Education,	1,237	7	5
				Record fund,	15	14	4
Record fees,	36	11	9	Local funds,	368	2	3
Local funds,	764	14	8	Municipal fund,	112	10	7
Municipal Fund,	126	14	2	Survey Department,	327	15	6
Income Tax,	251	6	9	Interest on loans,	499	18	0
Opium,	462	0	0	District road fund,	815	0	11
Profit and Loss,	1,391	1	2	Medical,	250	16	2
Total,	£132,051	1	10	Total,	£24,459	19	7

BALANCE SHEET OF MAIMANSINH DISTRICT FOR 1870-71.

REVENUE.				EXPENDITURE.			
Land Revenue, (collections),	£84,282	12	0	Revenue Department,	£7,484	18	0
Excise,	17,474	14	0	Criminal, ,,	1,369	4	0
Fines, Judicial and Revenue,	1,739	4	0	Judicial, ,,	12,444	6	0
				Regular Police,*	10,053	12	0
Police,	161	12	0	Registration, ,,	503	2	0
Registration,	1,104	16	0	Income Tax,	699	14	0
Income Tax,	13,293	10	0	Local Fund,	4,545	10	0
Local Fund,	6,239	2	0	Education,	3,587	19	10
Education, schooling fees, &c.,	2,036	13	3	Jail expenditure,	2,268	4	4
				Post Office,	1,807	18	1
Jail Manufacturers,	326	4	6	Sub-Divisional Administration,	813	2	0
Post Office,	1,710	16	2				
Stamps,	28,574	4	0	Topographical Survey,	2,161	8	0
Civil Court *amíns* fees,	467	12	0	Excise,	729	0	0
Pêon's fees,	1,198	6	0	Medical,	1,106	12	0
Sale of proprietary right in Government estates,	2,783	4	0				
Khas Mahal Tahsíldárs,	4	16	0				
Sale proceeds of unclaimed property,	177	8	0				
Law suits,	10	8	0				
Forfeiture of recognisances,	11	12	0				
Miscellaneous,	20	10	0				
Total,	£161,617	3	11	Total,	£49,574	10	3

* Exclusive of Municipal Police (£655, 15s.), and the Village Watch (£20,228, 8s.), defrayed by the Villagers and by Municipal Rates, see p. 467.

THE LAND TAX.—While the general revenue of the District has increased by 109 per cent., or more than doubled itself, between 1795-96 and 1870-71, the Government land-tax has remained almost stationary, the "current demand" having increased from £80,605, 6s. to £84,593, 12s., or by only 4·95 per cent. within the same period. Maimansinh is not a District of very small estates, nor has sub-infeudation increased to any great extent, as is the case in the neighbouring District of Silhet just transferred to the newly created Province of Assam. The number of registered proprietors and coparceners in each estate in Maimansinh is still almost the same as it was at the close of the last century; in 1795-96 the number of registered proprietors to each estate was 1·03, in 1870-71 it had only increased to 1·16. In 1795-96 there were altogether 4178 estates on the rent-roll of the District, paying revenue direct to Government. These 4178 estates were held by 4308 registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total land-revenue to Government of £80,605, 6s., equal to an average payment of £19, 5s. 10d. from each estate, or £18, 14s. 2d. by each individual proprietor or coparcener. The amount of land-revenue here given—viz., £80,605, 6s.—is probably the total land-revenue demand. As will be seen in the table showing the balance-sheet of the District for 1795-96 on page 97, the total amount of land-revenue actually collected in that year amounted to only £71,999, 1s. 6d. In 1803-4, the total number of estates on the rent-roll of the District amounted to 4180, held by 4601 individual proprietors or co-parceners, subject to a Government land revenue demand of £80,800, 12s., equal to an average payment of £19, 6s. 7d. from each estate, or £17, 11s. 3d. from each individual proprietor or coparcener. In 1850-51, 5531 estates, owned by 6425 individuals, were held subject to the payment of a Government demand of £82,242, 16s., equal to an average payment of £14, 17s. 4d. from each estate, or £12, 16s. by each individual proprietor or coparcener. In 1870-71, the number of estates on the District Register had increased to 6298, and the number of individual proprietors or coparceners to 7354; in this year the "current demand" of land revenue amounted to £84,593, 12s., equal to an average payment of £13, 8s. 7d. from each estate, or £11, 10s. from each individual proprietor or co-parcener. The total "collections" amounted to £84,282, 12s.

THE AMOUNT OF PROTECTION afforded to person and property has steadily increased of late years. In 1793, there were but two magisterial and two Civil and Revenue Courts in the whole District. In

1800 there were three Magisterial and two Civil and Revenue Courts. In 1860-61 there were ten Magisterial and thirteen Civil and Revenue Courts; and in 1870-71 ten Magisterial and fourteen Civil and Revenue Courts. In 1793, there were three covenanted European officers at work in the District throughout the year; in 1800 and 1850, four; and in 1860 and 1870-71, five. These five officers are the Magistrate and Collector; the Civil and Sessions Judge, the Joint Magistrate and Deputy Collector, and two Assistant Magistrates and Collectors.

WORKING OF THE LAND LAW.—The number of rent cases instituted in different years, under the provisions of Act X. of 1859, is as follows:—In 1861-62, 3291 original suits were instituted, besides 757 miscellaneous applications; in 1862-63, there were 3363 original suits and 3062 miscellaneous applications; in 1866-67, 2369 original suits and 2522 miscellaneous applications; and in 1868-69, 2253 original suits and 2170 miscellaneous applications.

POLICE.—In this, as in every other branch of the administration, considerable improvement has taken place of late years, and there is now a well-organised force for the detection and punishment of crime. In 1793, the cost of officering the police, from the rank of Head Constable (*jamádár*) upwards, was only £66, 8s.; in 1840, £102, 12s.; and in 1860, £136, 10s. The present system of regular District Police was introduced in 1861, and in the following year consisted of 20 native officers and 192 footmen, besides the old village police or *chaukidárs*. For police purposes, the District is now divided into fifteen police circles or *thánás*, as follow:—In the *Sadr* or headquarters' subdivision—(1) Maimansinh, (2) Mádárganj, (3) Ghafargáon, (4) Netrakoná, (5) Durgápur, and (6) Phulpur. In Jamálpur subdivision—(7) Jamálpur, (8) Sherpur, and (9) Díwánganj. In Atiá subdivision—(10) Atiá, (11) Pingná, and (12) Madhupur. In Kisoríganj subdivision—(13) Kisoríganj, (14) Niklí, and (15) Bájitpur. The District Police Force consists of three bodies—the regular police, a small body of municipal police for the protection of the towns and larger villages, and the village watch or rural police.

REGULAR POLICE.—At the end of the year 1871, the Regular District Police was composed as follows:—3 European superior officers, consisting of a District Superintendent and 2 Assistant Superintendents, receiving a total salary of £1620 per annum; 79 subordinate officers, maintained at a total cost of £3894, or an average pay of £49, 5s. 10d. each; and 411 native foot constables,

maintained at a total cost of £3232, 16s., equal to an average annual pay of £7, 17s. 4d. a year for each man. Total Regular Police Force of all ranks, 493. Besides the actual cost of maintaining the officers and men, a sum of £180 a year is allowed as travelling expenses for the superior European officers; £212 for pay and travelling allowances of their office establishment; and £914, 16s. for contingencies and all other expenses, making up the total cost of the Regular Police at £10,053, 12s. The Census of 1872 returns the area of Maimansinh District at 6293 square miles, and the population at 2,349,917 souls. According to this basis of calculation, there is one regular policeman to every 12·76 square miles of the District area, or one to every 4766 of the population; maintained at an average cost of £1, 11s. 11¼d. per square mile, or a fraction over a penny per head of the population.

THE MUNICIPAL POLICE is a small body consisting of 6 officers and 83 men, stationed in the municipalities of Maimansinh or Nasírábád, Jamálpur, Kisorganj, and Sherpur; and maintained in 1871 at a total cost of £655, 16s., defrayed by means of rates levied on the shopkeepers and house-owners. The population of these four towns, according to the Census, is 46,032. According to these figures, there is one municipal policeman to every 517 of the town population; the cost of maintenance being 3⅜d. per head of the total town population.

THE VILLAGE WATCH, OR RURAL POLICE, is a force which in 1871 consisted of 5619 men, maintained at a total cost of £20,228, 8s., borne by the villagers, the average pay of each man being £3, 12s. a year. According to the Census returns of area and population, there is one village watchman to every 1·12 square miles of District area, or one to every 418 of the population. Each village watchman has on an average 54 houses under his charge.

Including, therefore, the Regular Force, the Municipal Police, and the Village Watch, the machinery for protecting person and property in Maimansinh District consisted in 1871 of a total force of 6201 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £30,937, 16s. Compared with the area and population, this gives one police officer to every 1·01 square miles, or one to every 379 of the population. The total cost amounted to £4, 18s. 4d. per square mile of area, or a fraction over 3½d. per head of the population.

POLICE WORK.—In 1871, the police conducted 1082 "cognisable" cases in which the percentage of final convictions to men brought to

trial was 51·8; and 1743 "non-cognisable" cases, in which the percentage of final convictions to men brought to trial was 48·7. Total of "cognisable" and "non-cognisable" cases, 2825; proportion of final convictions to men brought to trial, 49·7 per cent. General crime has much decreased of late years, but in 1871 the police do not seem to have had much success in dealing with serious offences. The number of acquittals was high; out of 119 cases, in 63 or 53 per cent., the prisoners were acquitted. Six murder cases occurred in 1871 against 14 in the previous year; 6 men were acquitted at the Sessions Court, but I cannot find from the Inspector General's Report whether any were convicted. *Dákáití*, or gang robbery, furnished 9 cases, all of which resulted in acquittals; and kidnapping, or abduction, 8 cases, all of which also resulted in acquittals. Out of 142 cases of wrongful restraint, in 75 or 53 per cent. convictions were obtained.

Criminal Classes.—The Inspector General of Jails in his Report for 1868, states that murder or culpable homicide is the most prevalent heinous crime of Maimansinh, and bears a larger ratio to other crimes than in neighbouring Districts. Murders are generally committed either from motives of jealousy or from land disputes. *Dákáití*, or gang robbery, is not common; but groundless charges are frequently made to the police, which fall through on investigation. When a case of gang robbery does occur, the offence is generally committed by Hindus. Charges of adultery and abduction are numerous, but in general the evidence either fails, or the case is not prosecuted to conviction. These cases, with scarcely an exception, occur among Muhammadans of the lower class. Housebreaking is not an uncommon offence, and on the whole, is stated to be more often committed by Hindus than by Muhammadans. In petty cases, such as assault and trespass, the great majority of the offenders are Muhammadans. Crime, however, is not very prevalent, and in this respect Maimansinh contrasts favourably with many of the surrounding Districts.

Jail Statistics.—There are four jails in Maimansinh—viz., the District Jail at the Civil Station, and subdivisional lock-ups at Jamálpur, Kisorganj, and Atiá. The following figures, showing the jail population of Maimansinh District for 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870 are compiled from a return specially prepared for me by the Inspector-General of Jails. The figures for the two first-named years must be regarded with caution, and taken only as approximately

correct. Owing to defects in the original returns, which cannot now be remedied, in some cases prisoners are counted twice over: prisoners transferred from the Central Jail to the lock-ups, being returned in both statements without allowance being made for the transfers. Under-trial prisoners subsequently convicted, also appear twice, having been returned under both heads. No means now exist of eliminating these discrepancies. Since 1870, an improved form of preparing the returns has been introduced, and the statistics for that year may be taken as correct.

In 1857-58, the first year for which materials are available, the daily average number of prisoners in the Maimansinh jail and sub-divisional lock-ups, was 548; the total number of civil, criminal and under-trial prisoners, admitted during the year, being 1438. The discharges were as follow:—transferred, 56; released, 1326; escaped, 8; died, 86; executed, 3; total, 1479. In 1860-61, the jail returns shew a daily average number of prisoners of 489, the total admission of prisoners of all classes during the year, being 1600. The discharges were—transferred, 195; released, 1277; escaped, 3; died, 67; executed, 3; total 1545. In 1870, the daily average jail population was 653, the total number of prisoners admitted during the year being 1801. The discharges were,—transferred, 16; released, 1414; escaped, 9; died, 23; executed, 1; total, 1463. In 1872, the total daily average number of prisoners in the Maimansinh jail and lock-ups had fallen to 409·12, or according to the Census returns of the population, one prisoner always in jail to every 5743 of the population. The sanitary condition of the jail has very much improved of late years. In 1857-58, the per-centage of prisoners admitted to hospital amounted to 204·38 per cent, and the deaths to 86 or 15·69 per cent. of the average jail populaton; in 1860-61, the admissions into hospitals amounted to 258·28 per cent., and the deaths to 67, or 13·70 per cent. of the average prison population; in 1870, the admissions to the jail hospital had fallen to 98·01 per cent., and the deaths to 23 or 3·52 per cent. of the average prison population. In 1872, 15 deaths occurred, or 3·79 per cent. of the average jail population, excluding lock-ups; the death rate in this year being 1·55 per cent. less than the average rate in the prisons throughout Bengal.

The average cost of maintenance per prisoner in the Maimansinh jail and lock-ups, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, contigencies, and all other charges except the prison police guard, is returned as follows:—In 1857-58 it amounted to £3, 19s. 8½d per

head; in 1860-61 to £3, 7s. 9½d; and in 1870 to £3, 17s. 9½d per head. The cost of the jail police guard in 1870 amounted to an average of 14s. per head, making a gross charge to Government of £4, 11s. 9½ per head. The Inspector General of Jails in his Report for 1870, returns the total cost of the Maimansinh jail and lock-ups, including police guard, at £2676. Excluding the cost of the police guard, which is included in the general police budget for the District, the cost of the jail amounted to £2268, 4s.

Prison manufactures have now been carried on in Maimansinh jail for a period of thirty years, and a fair amount of profitable work is exacted from the able-bodied convicts, towards reducing the cost of their maintenance. In 1857-58, the receipts arising from the sale of jail manufactures, together with the value of the stock remaining on hand at the end of the year, amounted to £649, 16s. 5d., and the charges to £388, 4s. 5d.; showing an excess of receipts, overcharges, or profit, of £261, 12s.; average earnings by each prisoner employed in manufacture, £1, 0s. 5¼d. In 1860-61, the receipts amounted to £631, 19s. 7½d and the charges to £334, 5s. 5d., leaving a profit of £297, 14s. 2½d; average earnings by each prisoner employed in manufactures, £1, 4s. 11d. In 1870, the total credits arising from jail manufactures amounted to £1107, 18s. 10d., and the total debits to £781, 14s. 4d., leaving an excess of receipts, overcharges, or profit, of £326, 4s, 6d., average earnings by each prisoner engaged in manufacture, £1, 15s. 10d. Of the 182 prisoners engaged in manufacture in 1870, 71 were employed in weaving gunny; 40 in gardening; 16 in cloth weaving; 12 in bamboo, rattan, and reed work; 28 in brick-making; 11 in oil-pressing; and 4 in paper-making; total, 182. In 1872 labour rules were more rigidly enforced, and although fewer prisoners were employed on actual remunerative labour than in 1870, the results were more satisfactory. The total cost of the manufacturing department amounted to £426, 13s. and the cash remitted to the treasury on account of manufactures to £857, 14s., leaving an actual profit of £431, 1s. The average number of prisoners employed in industrial manufactures was 160; the average amount earned by each prisoner employed in manufactures being £5, 6s. 9d., of which £2, 13s. 7d. was profit. The 160 prisoners were employed as under:—gunny weaving, 38; gardening, 45; manufacturing clothing, 9; bamboo, rattan, and reed work, 14; manufacturing bricks and tiles, 36; oil-making, 8; string-making, 6; and 4 on carpentry, iron work, and miscellaneous jobs; total, 160.

Besides these, 21 labouring convicts were employed as warders; 49 as menial prison servants; 21 on other jail duties; 13 employed by the municipality, and 23 on Public Works.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.—The following table illustrates the progress of education in Maimansinh District for the fifteen years from 1856-57 to 1870-71. In 1856-57, there were only 2 Government and Aided Schools in the whole District, attended by a total of 387 pupils; in 1860-61, the number of Government and Aided Schools had increased to 44, with 1830 pupils; and in 1870-71 to 85 with 3474 pupils. The cost of education to Government has increased from £310, 2s. 4d. in 1856-57, to £340, 13s. 6d. in 1860-61, and to £1509, 11s. 1d. in 1870-71. The amount derived from fees, subscriptions and other private sources was £209, 17s. 5d. in 1856-57, £899, 3s. 9d. in 1860-61, and £2036, 13s. 3d. in 1870-71. The total expenditure on Government and Aided Schools has increased from £519, 19s. 9d. in 1856-57 to £1237, 7s. 5d. in 1860-61, and to £3587, 19s. 10d. in 1870-71. A striking feature in the table is the smallness of the number of Muhammadan pupils. Although the Musalmáns form 64·7 per cent. of the total District population, in 1870-71, out of a total of 3474 pupils attending the Government and Aided Schools, only 525 or 15 per cent. were Muhammadans. It must be borne in mind that this table only includes the Government and Aided Schools in the District, which are under the control of the Educational Department. There are also a large number of private schools not inspected by the Department, and which, as a rule, do not furnish the Inspectors with any returns. It should be remembered that the table exhibits the state of education before Sir George Campbell's reforms in 1872. The results obtained by his improved system of primary education will be shown in another Table on p. 473.

[RETURN OF GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS.

Return of Government and Aided Schools in Maimansinh District for the years 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71.

Classification of Schools.	No. of schools.			Number of Pupils.												Cost of Government.			Amount realised by fees and private contributions.			Total Cost.		
				Hindus.			Muhammadans.			Others.			Total.											
	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.	1856-57.	1860-61.	1870-71.
																£ S. D.	£ S. D.	£ S. D.	£ S. D.	£ S. D.	£ S. D.	£ S. D.	£ S. D.	£ S. D.
Government English School,	1	1	1	180	184	322	10	2	19	5	3	1	195	189	342	236 3 1	216 18 4	139 13 9	183 4 1	321 5 0	580 19 1	419 7 2	538 3 4	720 12 10
Do. Vernacular School,	1	1	9	160	165	264	31	25	90	1	2	127	192	192	481	73 19 3	58 3 2	179 8 10	26 13 4	52 7 0	116 19 4	100 12 7	110 10 2	296 8 2
Do. Training School for Masters,	...	...	1	...	...	42	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	43	...	...	214 11 7	...	...	...	...	...	214 11 7
Aided English Schools,	...	5	24	...	230	989	...	32	141	...	...	...	...	262	1,130	...	28 5 0	555 15 9	...	161 11 9	872 15 11	...	187 18 11	1,426 9 9
Aided Vernacular Schools,	...	37	50	...	1,023	1,204	...	163	274	...	1	...	...	1,187	1,478	...	37 7 0	420 1 2	...	364 0 0	465 18 11	...	400 15 0	929 17 6
Total,	2	44	85	340	1,602	2,821	41	222	525	6	6	128	387	1,830	3,474	310 2	340 13 6	1,509 11 1	209 17 5	899 3 9	2,036 13 3	519 19 9	1,237 7 5	3,587 19 10

Since 1870, there has been a much more rapid development of education than in former years. Under Sir George Campbell in 1871-72, a new system of primary education was introduced, by which most of the existing village schools received a small grant in aid from Government. The result was that on the 31st March 1873, the total number of Government and Aided Schools, was 174, attended by 6,372 pupils, exclusive of 71 unaided schools attended by 2,425 pupils, making a total of 245 schools and 8,797 pupils, of whom all except 5 were males. This increase of education was effected at very little additional cost to the State, the amount of Government grant being only £1,688, 10s., and the total cost of educating 8,797 pupils attending 245 schools being returned at £4,649, 10s. The following table exhibits the results at a glance.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF MAIMANSINH DISTRICT FOR THE YEAR 1872-73.

Description of Schools.	No. of Schools on 31st March 1873.	No. of pupils attending on 31st March 1873.	Average daily attendance.	Receipts.			Total Cost.	Average cost to Government per pupil (31st March).	Total average cost per pupil (31st March).
				Government grant.	From Local sources. Fees and Fines.	From Local sources. Subscriptions.	Total Receipts.		
				£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Higher Schools,									
Government, .	1	321	322	210 0 0	606 0 7	...	816 0 7	732 8 5	0 13 1½	2 5 7½
Unaided, . . .	1	181	159	...	45 4 7	296 3 1	341 7 8	286 19 2	...	1 11 8½
Total, . .	2	502	481	210 0 0	651 5 2	296 3 1	1,157 8 3	1,019 7 7	0 8 4½	2 0 7½
Middle Schools,										
Government, .	1	314	285	42 0 0	135 10 6	...	177 10 6	167 18 0	0 2 8	0 10 8½
Aided, ...	56	2,441	2,089	930 14 6	435 14 11	898 1 2	2,264 10 7	2,240 16 4	0 7 7½	0 18 4½
Unaided, . . .	14	695	640	...	80 7 7	357 8 2	437 15 9	424 19 11	...	0 12 2½
Total, . .	71	3,450	3,014	972 14 6	651 13 0	1,255 9 4	2,879 16 10	2,833 14 3	0 5 7½	0 16 5
Primary Schools,										
Government, .	9	218	197	202 3 10	4 11 6	...	206 15 4	206 15 4	0 18 6½	0 18 11½
Aided, ...	11	232	237	59 10 10	22 7 4	28 3 7	110 1 9	116 10 5	0 5 1½	0 10 0½
Aided *pathsalas,*	95	2,801	1,820	34 5 3	94 1 3	93 15 7	222 2 1	223 6 7	0 0 2½	0 1 7
Unaided *pathsalas,*	56	1,549	...	...	6 11 10	34 4 6	40 16 4	40 0 2	...	0 0 6½
Total, . .	171	4,800	2,254	295 19 11	127 11 11	156 3 8	579 15 6	586 12 6	0 1 2½	0 2 5½
Normal Schools,										
Government, .	1	45	37	209 19 7	...	...	209 15 7	209 15 8	4 13 2½	4 13 2½
Grand Total, . .	245	8,797	5,786	1,688 10 0	1,430 10 1	1,707 16 1	4,826 16 2	4,649 10 0	3 10 0	0 10 6½

POSTAL STATISTICS.—The Postal Statistics show a rapid expansion since 1861-62. During the ten years between 1861-62 and 1870-71, the number of letters, newspapers, books, and parcels received at the Maimansinh Post Office has increased from 76,260 to 153,288, or exactly doubled. The postal receipts have nearly trebled since 1861-62, while the expenditure has multiplied exactly six times within the same period. The following table showing the working of the Post Office for the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and

1870-71, has been furnished to me by the Director General of Post Offices.

POSTAL STATISTICS OF MAIMANSINH DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71.

	1861-62.		1865-66.		1870-71.	
	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.	Received.	Despatched.
Service Letters,	13,742	12,060	3,694	15,050	*	Returns not received.
Private Letters,	51,258	47,931	73,113	63,660		
Total,	65,000	59,991	76,807	78,710	140,027	
Newspapers,	6,541	374	7,997	927	9,279	
Parcels,	3,067	543	1,308	2,160	1,046	
Books,	1,652	11	514	93	2,936	
Grand Total,	76,260	60,919	86,626	81,890	153,288	
Sale of Postage Stamps,	£305 4 3		£470 13 10		£820 13 6	
Cash Collections,	270 10 6		393 1 1		890 2 8	
Total Postal receipts,	575 14 9		863 14 11		1,710 16 2†	
Total Postal expenditure,	308 4 11		325 11 6		1,807 18 1	

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Maimansinh District is divided into four administrative tracts or sub-divisions, as follow. The population figures are compiled from statements 1A and 1B Appendix to the Census Report of 1872: the administrative figures are derived from the special report furnished to me by the Collector.

THE MAIMANSINH OR HEAD-QUARTERS SUB-DIVISION, formed in the year 1786, contained in 1872 an area of 3210 square miles, with a total population of 1,035,647 souls, inhabiting 3765 villages or townships, and dwelling in 134,625 houses. Of the sub-divisional population, 644,446 or 62·2 per cent. are Muhammadans; proportion of males in the Musalmán population, 51·4 per cent. The Hindus number 381,393 or 36·9 per cent. of the sub-divisional population; proportion of males in the Hindu population, 51·5 per cent. The Christians only numbered 58, the proportion of males being 67·2 per cent. Other denominations not separately classified, number 9750, or ·9 per cent. of the sub-divisional population, proportion of males, 49·5 per cent. General proportion of males in the total sub-divisional population, 51·5 per cent. Average number of persons per square mile, 323; average number of villages or townships per square mile, 1·17;

* Service and private letters not shown separately, as all pay alike now.

† Exclusive of £57, 4s. 6d. received for sale of service stamps for official correspondence. Service stamps were first introduced in 1866.

average number of persons per village or township, 275; average number of houses per square mile, 42; average number of persons per house, 7·7. The subdivision comprises the police circles (*thánás*) of (1.) Maimansinh, (2.) Mádárganj, (3.) Ghafargáon, (4.) Netrakoná, (5.) Durgápur, and (6.) Phulpur. In 1870-71 it contained 18 Magisterial, Revenue, and Civil Courts, presided over by the following officers:—1 Judge; 1 Magistrate and Collector; 1 Joint Magistrate and Deputy Collector; 2 Assistant Magistrates and Deputy Collectors; 3 Deputy Magistrates and Deputy Collectors; 1 Subordinate Judge: 1 Additional Judge and 5 *munsifs*. The Regular Police, in 1870, consisted of 304 men, and the Village Watch, or Rural Police, 2887. The charge of the sub-divisional administration in 1870-71, as represented by the cost of the Courts, the Regular Police, and the Village Watch, is returned at £24,158 (including the Headquarters' Establishments), of which £10,393, 4s. is the cost of the Rural Police defrayed by the villagers.

JAMALPUR SUB-DIVISION was created in 1845. In 1872 it comprised an area of 1288 square miles, and contained a total population of 414,469 souls inhabiting 981 villages or townships, and dwelling in 50,671 houses. Of the sub-divisional population, 306,780 or 74 per cent. are Muhammadans; proportion of males in the total Musalmán population, 50·9 per cent. The Hindus number 105,777 or 25·5 per cent.; proportion of males, 50·2 per cent. Only 2 Christians are returned as dwelling in the sub-division. Other denominations number 1910, or ·5 per cent. of the sub-divisional population; proportion of males, 48·7 per cent. General proportion of males in the total sub-divisional population 50·7 per cent.; average density of population per square mile, 322; average number of villages or townships per square mile, ·76; average number of inhabitants per village or township, 422; average number of houses per square mile, 39; average number of inmates per house, 8·2. The sub-division comprises the police circles (*thánás*) of (1.) Jamálpur, (2.) Sherpur, and (3.) Díwánganj. In 1870 it contained a Deputy Magistrate and Deputy Collector's Court, and two *munsif's* Courts. The Regular Police numbered 64 and the Village Watch 895 men. The separate cost of sub-divisional administration in 1870-71, as represented by the maintenance of the Courts, the Regular Police, and the Village Watch, is returned at £5686, 10s., of which £3222 is the expense of the Rural Police, which is borne by the villagers.

ATIA SUB-DIVISION was created in 1869. In 1872 it comprised an

area of 1041 square miles, and contained a total population of 536,201 souls inhabiting 1917 villages, and dwelling in 73,338 houses. Of the sub-divisional population, 350,696, or 65·4 per cent. are Muhammadans; proportion of males in total Musalmán population 50·1 per cent. The Hindus number 185,016, or 34·5 per cent. of the sub-divisional population; proportion of males, 48·3 per cent. Only 1 Christian is returned as residing in the sub-division. The "other" population numbers 488, or ·1 per cent. of the subdivisional population; proportion of males, 39·5 per cent. General proportion of males in the total sub-divisional population, 49·5 per cent; average density of population per square mile, 515; average number of villages or townships per square mile 1·84; average number of inhabitants per village or township, 280; average number of houses per square mile, 70; average number of inmates per house, 7·3. The sub-division comprises the Police circles (*thánás*) of (1.) Pingná, (2.) Madhupur, and (3.) Atiá. In 1870 it contained a Deputy Magistrate and Deputy Collector's Court, and two *Munsifs'* Courts. The Regular Police numbered 59, and the Village Watch or Rural Police, 1224 men. The separate cost of sub-divisional administration in 1870-71, as represented by the maintenance of the Courts, the Regular Police Force and the Village Watch, is returned at £6464, inclusive of £4406, 8s. which forms the cost of the Rural Police, and is contributed by the villagers.

KISORIGANJ SUB-DIVISION was created in 1860. In 1872 it comprised an area of 754 square miles, and contained a total population of 363,600 souls, inhabiting 938 villages and dwelling in 49,374 houses. Of the sub-divisional population, 217,713 or 59·9 per cent. are Muhammadans; proportion of males in total Musalmán population, 49·4 per cent. The Hindus number 145,777 or 40·1 per cent. of the sub-divisional population; proportion of males 49·4 per cent. Christians, 63; proportion of males, 49·2 per cent. "Others," 47; proportion of males, 6·4 per cent. General proportion of males in the total sub-divisional population 49·4 per cent; average density of population per square mile, 482; average number of villages or townships per square mile, 1·24; average number of inhabitants per village or township, 388; average number of houses per square mile, 65; average number of inmates per house, 7·4. The sub-division comprises the police circles (*thánás*) of (1.) Kisoríganj, (2.) Niklí, and (3.) Bájitpur. In 1870 it contained a Deputy Magistrate and Deputy Collector's Court, and two *Munsifs'* Courts. The Regular Police numbered 62, and the Village

Watch, or Rural Police, 737 men. The separate cost of sub-divisional administration in 1870-71, as represented in the maintenance of the Courts, and the Regular and Village Police, is returned at £4578, 2s. inclusive of £2653, 4s. which forms the cost of the Rural Police, and is contributed by the villagers.

FISCAL DIVISIONS. The following list of *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions in Maimansinh District, showing the area, number of estates, amount of land revenue, &c., of each *parganá*, together with the Subordinate Judge's Court which has jurisdiction in it, is taken from the Board of Revenue's *parganá* statistics of area, revenue, &c. As explained at the end of the list, the figures, although not exactly correct, may be accepted as closely approximating to the truth. With regard to the Courts, it should be remembered that changes in jurisdiction from time to time take place. I give them as officially supplied to me (1870-71).

(1.) ALAPSINH, area, 292,272 acres, or 456·67 square miles; contains 55 estates; pays a land revenue of £7903, 2s.; and is subject to the jurisdiction of the Subordinate Judge of Nasirábád.

(2.) ATIA, area, 498,988 acres, or 779·67 square miles; 147 estates; land revenue, £6,090, 12s.; court at Atiá town.

(3.) BALRAMPUR, area, 2621 acres, or 4·09 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £24, 6s.; court at Nikli.

(4.) BARBAJU, area, 189,615 acres, or 296·27 square miles; 952 estates; land revenue, £5191, 18s.; court at Sirájganj in Pabná District.

(5.) BARDAKHAT, area, 20,831 acres, or 32·55 square miles; 39 estates; land revenue, £1390, 12s.; courts at Bájitpur and Nikli.

(6.) BAOKHAND; area, 6483 acres, or 10·13 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £77, 6s.; court at Netrakoná.

(7.) BARIKANDI; area, 2398 acres, or 3·75 square miles; 21 estates; land revenue, £605; court at Náráinganj in Dacca District.

(8.) HAZRADI; area, 179,068 acres, or 279·79 square miles; 1576 estates; land revenue, £4527, 8s.; court at Netrakoná.

(9.) HUSAINSHAHI; area, 144,605 acres, or 225·94 square miles; 310 estates; land revenue, £6532, 6s.; courts at Nikli and Mádárganj.

(10.) IDGHAR; area, 539 acres, or ·84 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £17, 10s.; court at Nikli.

(11.) JAFARSHAHI; area, 148,886 acres, or 232·63 square miles 10 estates; land revenue, £101, 10s.; court at Pingná.

(12.) JOAR HUSAINPUR; area, 42,529 acres, or 66·45 square miles; 126 estates; land revenue, £1010, 6s.; court at Nikli.

(13.) JUANSHAHI; area, 208,456 acres, or 325·71 square miles; 262 estates; land revenue, £2795, 12s.; court at Bájitpur.

(14.) KAGMARI; area, 220,163 acres, or 344 square miles; 452 estates; land revenue, £4982, 6s.; court at Atiá.

(15.) KASIPUR; area, 1027 acres, or 1·60 square miles; 66 estates; land revenue, £242, 6s.; court at Atiá.

(16.) KHALIAJURI; area, 84,854 acres, or 132·58 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £290, 14s.; court at Mádárganj.

(17.) KURIKHAI; area, 47,244 acres, or 73·82 square miles; 16 estates; land revenue, £1376, 8s; courts at Bájitpur and Niklí.

(18.) LATIBPUR; area, 12,836 acres, or 20·06 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £183, 16s.; court at Bájitpur.

(19.) MAIMANSINH; area, 289,133 acres, or 451·77 square miles; 79 estates; land revenue, £13,784, 10s.; courts at Mádárganj, Niklí and Bájitpur.

(20.) MUKIMABAD; area, 2163 acres, or 3·38 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £74, 16s.; court at Netrakoná.

(21.) NASIRUJIAL; area, 229,270 acres, or 358·23 square miles; 841 estates; land revenue, £5110; court at Mádárganj.

(22.) NAWABAD; area, 222 acres, or 35 square miles; 34 estates; land revenue, £458; court at Náráinganj in Dacca District.

(23.) NIKLI; area, 1691 acres, or 2·64 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £151, 18s.; court at Bájitpur.

(24.) PUKHARIA; area, 329,760 acres, or 515·25 square miles; 604 estates; land revenue, £12,410, 2s.; courts at Pingná and Atiá.

(25.) RAIDAM; area, 24,788 acres, or 38·73 square miles; 45 estates; land revenue, £286, 16s.; court at Netrakoná.

(26.) RAN BHAWAL; area, 277,985 acres, or 434·35 square miles; 143 estates; land revenue, £3,227; court at Niklí.

(27.) SAGARDI; area, 19,668 acres, or 30·73 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £236, 4s.; court at Ghoshgáon.

(28.) SHERPUR; area, 482,135 acres, or 753·33 square miles; 87 estates; land revenue, £3,611, 10s.; court at Sherpur.

(29.) SINHDHA; area, 34,361 acres, or 53·69 square miles; 15 estates; land revenue, £279, 4s.; courts at Netrakoná and Mádárganj.

(30.) SUSANG; area, 288,803 acres; or 451·25 square miles; 23 estates; land revenue, £2,183, 14s.; court at Netrakoná.

The above figures show a total area of 4,083,394 acres, or 6380·30

square miles, against 6293 square miles as taken for the purposes of the Census, 5921 estates against 6298 as returned by the Collector in 1870-71; and a total land revenue of £85,156, against £85,319 realised in 1870-71. I have no means of checking the details furnished by the Board of Revenue, but the totals are sufficiently close to the figures obtained from other sources. The list of Fiscal Divisions furnished by the Collector, is the same as that given above, except that it does not include Barikándí, and gives three others, *viz.*, —Darzí Bázu, Sátsikká, and Tulandár.

CLIMATE.—The climate is most variable, especially in the rains, when after a very hot March and April, there may be several days in May when the temperature is not above 80, caused by frequent heavy showers. The rainy season is tolerably healthy, but towards its end, and before the cold weather sets in, the District is specially unhealthy, both to natives and Europeans. Highest temperature in 1869, 92° in April; lowest 57° in December. Total rainfall in 1869 97·85 inches. Average annual rainfall, 105 inches.

MEDICAL.—The principal endemic diseases of the District are malarious fevers, chiefly of the intermittent type, although a low form of remittent fever is also common. Dysentery is prevalent, and also rheumatism, apparently caused by the dampness of the District. Bronchitis is common, but phthisis and tubercular affections are comparatively rare, except in the jail, where they are said to have been developed by overcrowding. Sporadic cases of cholera occur throughout the whole year, and the disease occasionally makes its appearance in an epidemic form. Outbreaks of small-pox are common. Inoculation is very largely practised in the District, thus tending to spread the disease, and resulting in many fatal cases. The Civil Surgeon thinks that vaccination will make little or no progress in the District until its practice is made compulsory, as the people generally evince a deep-rooted objection to it. Quinine is now said to be superseding native drugs in cases of fever. The few fairs held in the District are merely local gatherings, and do not appear to have any influence upon health.

SANITATION; CONSERVANCY, &c.—The health of the Civil Station Nasírábád or Maimansinh has much deteriorated of late, owing to a large sand-bank or *char* covered with low jungle having been thrown up by the river in front of the town. The level of the town lies below the river bank. The surface water, instead of draining into the river, collects in ditches along the sides of the street, which are

filled with every description of impurity, and are stagnant during the dry seasons. In the rains, the water either forms into still pools of black fœtid matter, or slowly oozes into a large swamp a little to the south of the town. The result is malaria, dysentery, and fevers of several types. As a remedy, the Civil Surgeon in 1869 proposed that the Station should be removed, either to Subankhálí or Jamálpur, and stated that in his opinion the expense to Government which would accrue on account of loss of its Courts and other buildings, would be more than met by the better health of the Government officials, one or other of whom he was continually obliged to send away on sick certificate. In default of this, he would recommend being allowed to take the conservancy of the town to a certain extent into his own hands. The drinking water of a large portion of the town is drawn from the river, or from a dirty water course near the *bázár;* while those who live at a distance from the river get their water from pestilent little tanks, befouled with every sort of animal and vegetable filth. As a rule, the same tanks are used indiscriminately for drinking purposes, for bathing, and for washing clothes.

CHARITABLE DISPENSARIES.—The following table exhibits the amount of relief afforded by the Charitable Dispensaries of Maimansinh in 1871, showing the proportion of the cost contributed by Government, and by private subscriptions and other local sources. There are five dispensaries in the District, three of them containing hospital accommodation for indoor patients. The total number of indoor and outdoor patients who received medical relief in 1871 was 10,744, at a total cost of £566, 15s. 8d., exclusive of European Medicines supplied by Government free of charge. The cost of the Dispensaries to Government, including the value of European Medicines, amounted to £220, 17s.

The Dispensaries and Medical Charities of Maimansinh District in 1871.

Dispensaries.	Date of establishment.	Indoor Patients.							Outdoor Patients.		Operations.		Government Grant.	Value of European medicines supplied by Government free of charge.	Subscriptions and income from other sources.	Total income, exclusive of value of European medicines supplied by Government free of charge.	Total expenditure, exclusive of value of European medicines.
		Total treated.	Relieved or recovered.	Not improved or ceased to attend.	Died.	Remaining in hospital.	Percentage of deaths to treated.	Daily average number of sick.	Total treated.	Average daily attendance.	Capital.	Minor.	£. s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. Maimansinh Dispensary	1854	271	239	2	24	6	8·85	7·59	2358	27·07	3	271	60 0 0	...	88 7 0	148 7 0	187 1 8
2. Sherpur Branch Dispensary	1867	20	15	2	1	2	5·00	1·19	745	12·93	...	...	48 0 0	4 9 0	49 13 0	97 13 0	111 4 4
3. Rámgopálpur Branch Dispensary	1868	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2668	27·52	...	2	48 0 0	4 13 6	48 0 0	96 0 0	81 5 9
4. Husainpur Branch Dispensary	1870	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2167	16·20	...	...	48 0 0	3 15 3	48 0 0	96 0 0	78 3 9
5. Tangail Branch Dispensary *	1871	62	46	4	8	4	12·90	4·10	2453	41·88	2	9	...	3 19 3	160 0 0	160 0 0	109 0 2
Total		353	300	8	33	12	9·35	4·29	10,391	25·12	5	282	204 0 0	16 17 0	394 0 0	598 0 0	566 15 8

* A private dispensary maintained by the liberality of the local *zamíndár*, Bábu Dwárká Náth Rái Chaudhrí.

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